REPORT RESUMES

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SOCIAL STUDIES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS (THIRTY-SECOND YEARBOOK).

BY- MICHAELIS, JOHN U., ED.

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THIS YEARBOOK IS INTENDED TO PRESENT AN OVERVIEW OF RECENT TRENDS, ISSUES, AND PROBLEMS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SOCIAL STUDIES. CHAPTER I EXAMINES THE CURRENT CHALLENGE TO SOCIAL STUDIES, DISCUSSES THE CHARACTERISTICS AND PURPOSES OF AN EFFECTIVE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM, AND PROVIDES A SUMMARY OF THE YEARBOOK'S CONTENTS. CHAPTER II EXAMINES ISSUES INVOLVING THE SOCIAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES IN 4 ARTICLES DEALING WITH (1) SOCIAL DEMANDS AND PROBLEMS, (2) CHILDREN'S SOCIAL PERCEPTION, (3) PRINCIPLES FROM STUDIES OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT, AND (4) LEARNING, PROBLEM SOLVING, AND DECISION MAKING IN THE CLASSROOM. CHAPTER III CONTAINS 2 ARTICLES WHICH DEAL WITH CONTENT IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES--ONE PRESENTS A COLLECTION OF GENERALIZATIONS, THE OTHER AN OVERVIEW OF CONTENT, TRENDS, AND TOPICS. CHAPTER IV COVERS TRENDS IN THE ORGANIZATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES. CHAPTER V DISCUSSES CURRENT AFFAIRS, SPECIAL EVENTS, AND CIVIC PARTICIPATION. CHAPTER VI SURVEYS THE SKILLS AND PROCESSES INVOLVED IN SOCIAL STUDIES IN 6 ARTICLES DEALING WITH (1) CRITICAL THINKING AND PROBLEM SOLVING, (2) COMMUNICATION SKILLS, (3) MAP READING, (4) GROUP WORK SKILLS, (5) DRAMATIC PLAY, AND (6) INDUSTRIAL ARTS. THE 3 ARTICLES OF CHAPTER VII COVER (1) INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES, (2) THE USE OF TELEVISION, AND (3) THE VALUE OF BIOGRAPHIC MATERIALS. CHAPTER VIII DEALS WITH INSTRUCTIONAL PLANNING IN 4 ARTICLES ON (1) THE PHILOSOPHER-TEACHER, (2) DESIGNS FOR RESOURCE UNITS, (3) CLASS PLANNING, AND (4) THE INTRODUCTION OF NEW CONTENT. CHAPTER IX TREATS THE PROBLEM OF PLANNING FOR CHILDREN OF VARYING ABILITY, AND CHAPTER X CONCLUDES THE YEARBOOK WITH A DISCUSSION OF LEARNING EVALUATION TECHNIQUES. THE AUTHORS OF THE ARTICLES INCLUDED IN THE YEARBOOK ARE IDENTIFIED IN A CONTRIBUTORS' WHO'S WHO AT THE BACK OF THE BOOK. THIS DOCUMENT IS AVAILABLE FOR $4.00 FROM THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES, 1201 SIXTEENTH STREET, N.W., WASHINGTON, D.C. 20036. (DR)

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SOCIAL STUDIES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

John U. Michaelis, Editor

Thirty-Second Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies

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Social Studies in Elementary Schools

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Social Studies in Elementary Schools

John U. Michaelis, *Editor*
1962

Thirty-Second Yearbook

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Preface

THE basic, over-arching, less controversial reason we have schools is the necessity of inducting the young into the culture. This has been true from the day that New-Fist, that paleolithic educator, first devised the Saber-Tooth Curriculum down to next week's moan of anguish from the newest suburban community facing its school tax bill.

The social studies share with English the major responsibility for this acculturation, whatever else they may be expected to accomplish—and it seems that the total list of purposes, aims, objectives and outcomes seems to grow more lengthy every year.

On the elementary teacher this responsibility falls most specifically since the young, when they come to her, are in the most obvious need of help in changing from savages to barbarians and so on up the ladder of civilization. This emphasis is not to minimize unduly the many other facets of the elementary teacher's job; she must be a many-skilled professional.

It is because she has so much to do so skillfully, and because the National Council for the Social Studies, rather naturally, thinks the social studies part of her assignment to be centrally important, that this Yearbook has been prepared.

The roster of its contributing authors is most impressive and in itself assures insight and authority. The National Council is profoundly grateful to them for giving of their time and very great professional ability to this publication. Our thanks are especially profuse to John Michaelis, its editor, for organizing the project, "for steering it through expected straits," and for bringing it to so successful a conclusion.

SAMUEL P. MCCUTCHEN, *President*
National Council for the Social Studies

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Foreword

THIS Yearbook has been planned to provide an overview of recent trends, issues, and problems in the social studies in elementary schools. The topics selected for treatment were identified with the assistance of over 100 specialists in elementary school social studies located throughout the country. A questionnaire that included a listing of current problems was sent to them and they were invited to criticize the listed problems and to add others. After their suggestions were received and summarized, a revised list was sent to a group of 35 individuals for study and criticism. After comments were received from this group, a final listing of topics was prepared and sent to the Publications Committee of NCSS for final review and comment. Included in the membership of the Committee at this time were Gertrude Whipple, Howard Anderson, and Harris Dante. Their suggestions were incorporated in a final outline of the Yearbook which was submitted to the writers of different sections who were asked to prepare a detailed outline for each section. The outlines were reviewed by the Editor and returned to the writers for use in preparing first drafts of the manuscript. In many instances the first drafts were reviewed by individuals selected by each writer. A final review was made by the present members of the Publications Committee, namely, Harris Dante, William Cartwright, and Hall Bartlett. Many excellent suggestions were received from them and incorporated in the final copy.

To all of the individuals who contributed to this Yearbook—the specialists, the writers, the reviewers, and members of the two Publication Committees—the Editor wishes to express his sincere thanks. Without their help the quality of the Yearbook would have been greatly diminished.

JOHN U. MICHAELIS, *Editor*

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

John U. Michaelis

THE CURRENT CHALLENGE

THE challenge to develop outstanding programs of instruction in the social studies has never been greater. Responsibilities of citizenship continue to increase as human problems become more complex both at home and abroad. The rapid growth of man's knowledge in basic disciplines and swiftly-moving changes in human affairs offer opportunities heretofore not possible in selecting content, activities, and materials for inclusion in the program. The current emphasis upon the problem of achieving quality in education while at the same time meeting the problem of increasing enrollments has lead to a critical examination of existing programs. Increasing attention is being given to intellectual outcomes such as critical thinking ability, depth and breadth of understanding, and insight into the ways of thinking and living of other peoples. The impact of television and other mass media of communication upon children's development of concepts and understandings has opened up new possibilities for improving children's learning. Laymen and educators alike have shown increased concern for developing programs of instruction that truly lead to the achievement of basic objectives of the social studies.

This challenge is particularly urgent in democratic countries. One group has stated that the record of accomplishment in democratic countries offers no guarantee for the future.[1] The dangers of the totalitarian challenge must be faced realistically. Programs of education in non-democratic countries are designed to indoctrinate the young systematically and thoroughly. On the other hand, education in an open society is designed to liberate intelligence, to develop allegiances and loyalties based on reason and understanding, and to nurture critical thinking abilities. The social studies and other areas of the curriculum must be considered in relation to this challenge! As never before there is need to develop the understandings, abilities, attitudes, and appreciations that are needed to live effectively in our times.

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[1] *The Power of the Democratic Idea.* Special Studies Project Report VI, Rockefeller Brothers Fund. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co., 1960. p. 1.

The social studies can make significant contributions to the meeting of this challenge only if great effort is put forth in planning, developing, and evaluating the instructional program. The study of man in relation to his social and physical environment must be kept in central focus. Instruction must be guided by clear-cut purposes that teachers understand and use as they work with children. The instructional program must be rooted in the social and psychological foundations of education and be organized to provide for depth, breadth, and continuity of learning. A critical selection of content must be made from geography, history, political science, economics, anthropology, sociology and other disciplines, and from current affairs of greatest importance. Instructional resources, learning activities, and evaluative procedures must be selected and utilized in accord with criteria and principles designed to facilitate the achievement of basic purposes. The entire program must be permeated with democratic values that are of the essence in promoting human dignity in our times.

Tasks such as these need to be approached in a framework that gives a sense of direction to educational planning at all levels of instruction. Basic characteristics and fundamental purposes of effective social studies programs need to be identified. With a statement of characteristics and purposes in hand, it is possible for school personnel at the local, county, and state levels to work with a sense of common purpose in improving the social studies yet achieve the diversification that is needed to meet local needs and conditions.

Characteristics and Purposes of Effective Social Studies Programs

What are the characteristics and purposes of effective social studies programs? This is a difficult question, but one that should be answered as steps are taken to improve the social studies. Although a statement of desirable characteristics and basic purposes will vary from situation to situation in terms of existing values, problems, and conditions, certain basic elements should be discernible because of the many common needs, issues, and problems that exist in schools throughout the country.

The statement that follows grew out of a five-year statewide study.[2] It is illustrative of basic considerations to keep in mind as efforts are made to design and evaluate social studies programs that will make significant contributions to the education of children in our times.

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[2] *Report of the State Central Committee on the Social Studies to the California State Curriculum Commission.* Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1961. 92 p.

A social studies program is effective if:

1. It is based upon the spiritual, moral, intellectual, emotional, and physical development of the individual and upon the needs of the society in which he is a member.
2. It applies the best available information about the learning process and its relation to the development of children and youth, and it challenges the capabilities of each individual.
3. It emphasizes the *American way of life* and provides individuals with continuous opportunity to experience democratic living.
4. It emphasizes the importance of moral and spiritual ethics and provides for the acquisition of those ethical values cherished in American culture.
5. It promotes particularly the dignity of man and the ideal in our free society that people of all races and creeds shall have equal opportunities to excel.
6. It gives attention to current and persistent problems and utilizes contributions from the social sciences in formulating suggested solutions for those problems.
7. It stimulates creative thinking and reasoned action based upon an objective study of controversial issues.
8. It provides many opportunities for individuals and groups to use problem-solving techniques and to develop skills for effective thinking.
9. It provides a series of experiences which help individuals understand and appreciate that the rights and privileges of American society entail attendant responsibilities and duties.
10. It balances the contributions of the several social sciences and emphasizes the interrelatedness of social, political, economic, and spiritual forces in the United States and in the world.
11. It emphasizes the fact that democracy is a process through which ideas and institutions are submitted to public discussion and debate and it places value on the contributions of Americans to the development of their traditions.
12. It develops understanding and appreciation of other peoples and ways of life and of the reciprocal contributions to civilization made by individuals and groups of our own and other nations.
13. It illustrates how science and technology have made peoples of the world increasingly interdependent and have, at the same time, created many social, economic, and political problems that are international in scope.
14. It promotes an awareness of basic human needs and the development of skills and attitudes that enable individuals to contribute positively towards improved human relations in family, school, and communities.
15. It gives adequate attention to the development of the varied skills and competencies that are required for effective citizenship in a republic.
16. It utilizes and interrelates other areas of the curriculum in order to further its purposes.
17. It provides for continuous evaluation of the achievements and progress of individuals in terms of behaviors, understandings, competencies, values, and attitudes.
18. It is flexible enough to meet the individual differences of pupils in

varying environments, yet maintains a continuity of purpose and content that gives direction to the program at all levels.

19. It develops from kindergarten through the fourteenth grade, reinforcing and expanding content, skills, and attitudes at each level, and it encourages an appropriate variety of emphases and approaches to learning at different educational levels.
20. It provides for revisions to incorporate new research findings and to meet the emerging demands of our changing society and of the individuals therein.
21. It is taught by persons who have the breadth and depth of preparation that will enable them to teach effectively the wide range of topics which comprise the social studies.[3]

The foregoing statement was not prepared for direct transfer to courses of study. Rather, it was planned for use as a guide to (a) the formulation of specific objectives in courses of study and units of work, and (b) the evaluation of social studies programs. The view that local school personnel should prepare detailed statements of objectives is consistent with that taken in Chapter VIII of this Yearbook. Objectives become meaningful to teachers as they use them in planning and developing learning experiences with children and receive assistance from their co-workers in the local situation.

Implicit in the foregoing statement, however, are several ideas related to objectives of the social studies that deserve special mention. As with other fundamental areas of the curriculum, instruction in the social studies makes unique contributions to the over-all purposes of education.[4] Self-realization, human relationships, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility are major purposes of education which have been emphasized by schools throughout the country.[5] A central purpose currently being stressed is the cultivation of thinking ability so that the individual will use his rational powers with maximum effectiveness in meeting and solving problems.[6] Basic goals such as these include a combination of concepts, understandings, skills, habits, attitudes, and appreciations. In fact, in many courses of study and units of work specific objectives are categorized as (a) information, concepts, and generalizations; (b) habits, skills, and abilities; and (c) attitudes, values, and appreciations. Under each category may be listed the specific objectives that are pertinent to the unit of work or grade level under consideration, and that are meaningful in the local situation.

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[3] *Ibid.*, p. 5-6.

[4] Michaelis, John U. *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956. p. 7-9.

[5] Educational Policies Commission. *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1938.

[6] Educational Policies Commission. *The Central Purpose of American Education*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1961. p. 21.

OVERVIEW OF THE YEARBOOK

This Yearbook has been planned to help individuals and groups develop social studies programs that possess characteristics such as those noted above. Major issues and problems and ways of improving the social studies are discussed. An attempt has been made to keep a balance between basic principles and practical procedures; both are needed if solid progress is to be made. Recent trends and developments are to be found throughout the different sections along with concepts and practices which have proven to be of value in the past. The scope of the Yearbook ranges from a consideration of the foundations of the social studies to evaluation of instructional outcomes.

A summary of selected points of emphasis in each chapter is presented here to give an overview of the remainder of the Yearbook. An attempt has been made to present a sampling of major points of emphasis indicative of basic views expressed in each section. Many of those selected are related to current issues and problems in the social studies and indirectly provide an indication of the stand taken by various writers. As is to be expected, differing points of view appear to underlie various chapters, although it seems to this writer that existing differences are more a matter of *degree* of emphasis than *kind* of emphasis.

Foundations of the Social Studies

Selected aspects of the social and psychological foundations of the social studies are given consideration in Chapter II. Specific attention is given to social demands and problems, children's social perceptions, learning and problem solving, and child development.

Social demands and problems. In the first section, Miel reviews the demands of a democratic society in relation to the process of socialization. What the individual needs and wants to become is discussed in relation to group needs and responsibilities. Included among the "demands of democracy" are the decisions each individual must make as questions arise related to respect for people, the common welfare, majority and minority views, and autonomy and external authority. Furthermore, each individual has a responsibility to participate in the decision making process, and his mental health is related to satisfactions growing out of his participation. Another key point is that generalizations about democracy must be earned by children in such a fashion that they achieve an organized view of democracy which they understand and care about.

In viewing changing social problems as sources of content, Miel suggests an approach based on a study of what society is becoming. Of key importance in teaching is the quality of experience designed to affect children's feelings, understandings, and abilities. More than knowledge is needed. Judgment, deep feelings for others, and a desire to improve society must be nurtured. Toward this end, educators are urged to keep the focus of the social studies on people.

Children's social perceptions. How children perceive social situations is discussed by Estvan who draws upon a recently completed investigation of children's social perceptions.[7] Perception is defined as "an interpretation of a situation in terms of which the individual responds." The individual is selective in what he observes, draws upon his background of meanings and concepts to make an interpretation, and is affected by his emotional state. Differences among individual interpretations are noted and three levels of perceptual development are identified: (a) simple enumeration, (b) a consideration of parts, and (c) an awareness of meaningful wholes. In addition to levels of perception, it is pointed out that children are more likely to respond to people in a situation than to the physical environment or cultural matrix. Children's general order of awareness of a situation appears to move from *who* and *what* to *why* and *how.* Among the implications and suggestions for teaching are (a) note and build upon initial interpretations (b) develop related meanings and concepts so that interpretation is facilitated, (c) provide for recurring rather than "one-shot" experiences so that finer discriminations can be made and relationships can be discerned, and (d) related concepts from different content areas. The desired outcome is viewed as being broadened social perceptions that function in behavior which is insightful and intelligent.

Child development. The critical importance of drawing upon studies of child development as a foundation for curriculum planning in the social studies is elaborated by Hanna and Hagaman. The uniqueness of each individual and the danger of generalizing about children in a particular grade are noted. The view is taken that consideration must be given to all aspects of child development—physical, social, and emotional, as well as intellectual. Curriculum workers are urged to consider developmental tasks that children must meet in our society as the social studies program is developed. The importance of feelings, health, personality development, and social attitudes in democratic living are discussed in relation to problems and conflicts that must be resolved by children. The writers urge teachers and others to help children resolve these conflicts in constructive ways so that each child will develop a wholesome self-concept and positive social perceptions. A supportive atmosphere is needed in which children can develop the trust, autonomy, and sense of achievement characteristic of a healthy personality. This section is concluded with the writers' recommendations of action principles that should be used in planning and organizing the social studies program. The reader is urged to check them against proposals and points of view expressed by Ellsworth in Chapter IV.

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[7] Estvan, Frank J., and Elizabeth W. Estvan. *The Child's World: His Social Perception.* New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959. 302 p.

Learning, problem solving, and classroom decision making. In the last section, O'Neill makes a unique and critical appraisal of the values of problem solving as a general approach to instruction in the social studies. Problem solving is defined in terms of such steps as identifying the problem, formulating an hypothesis, gathering data, testing the hypothesis, and forming and testing conclusions. Optimum conditions for learning are discussed in relation to reactions of the individual, purposes, developmental appropriateness of learning experiences, and richness of the learning environment. The conditions of learning are used as criteria for assessing the values of the problem solving process. This is followed by a second assessment in which consideration is given to the value of problem solving processes in providing guidance for the making of decisions about the choice and use of learning activities. It is concluded that problem solving as an approach to learning activities fully meets both sets of criteria. Yet as O'Neill points out, "problem solving is an aid to, not a substitute for, an excellent teacher." The reader will find it helpful to check this section against the one in Chapter VI that deals with the development of critical thinking and problem solving skills in the social studies.

Content in the Social Studies

Two different aspects of the problem of content in the social studies are presented in Chapter III. One deals primarily with basic generalizations from the social sciences while the other deals with an overview of content, trends, and topics in the social studies.

Generalizations. In the first, Hanna and Lee note three basic sources of content for the social studies in elementary schools; namely, informal content from daily activities, informal content found in the child's responses to these events, and content from the social sciences. The view is taken that content for the social studies should be a synthesis from all three sources and should be built around generalizations from the social sciences. Generalizations from the social sciences that have been derived through a series of doctoral theses are presented along with a discussion of the procedures used to identify and organize them.

The scope of the design for organizing the generalizations is based on major human activities, such as transporting people and goods, communicating ideas and feelings, and providing education. The sequence of the design is based on the expanding communities of men, beginning with the family, school, and neighborhood communities and moving outward in concentric circles to the world community. Illustrative generalizations related to the scope of the design are presented. The next step to be taken is that of restructuring and restating the generalizations in terms of their meaning for the expanding communities of men that constitute the sequence of the design.

The writers point out that generalizations are but one of the objectives that must be considered in the social studies. As aims of teaching, generalizations are helpful in avoiding a patchwork of unrelated information; they serve as organizing centers to which specific facts and information can be related. The point is made that individuals do not remember all of the information to which they are exposed, but do tend to remember generalizations which they have derived for themselves.

Overview of content, trends, and topics in the social studies. The need to plan in terms of three points of reference—children, society, and the social sciences—is stressed by Furman. The view is held that social studies content is more than man's record of achievement; it is history, geography, civics, political science, economics, sociology, anthropology, and current affairs; it includes functional meanings, concepts, understandings, and attitudes that children acquire from their experience and from subject matter. One of the primary tasks of the teacher is to strengthen children's understanding. Twenty-five basic understandings are noted which include such key concepts as environmental relationships, satisfaction of basic needs, law and organization, cultural contributions, democracy, interdependence, use of resources, and basic human activities. The summary of recent trends in the social studies is a good backdrop for viewing content as well as other aspects of the program.

A concise overview of the instructional program is given for grades 1-6. School workers are urged to expand their concept of the child's "here and now" to include ideas gleaned from television, travel, and other broadening experiences. Specific topics included in the primary grades are discussed in relation to concepts that may be developed to broaden and deepen children's learning. Holiday observances, the study of people in differing climates, and the study of Indians are reviewed with attention to outcomes to be stressed and pitfalls to be avoided. The nature of history and geography in the middle grades and the place of daily experiences and current events are outlined and followed by a review of topics in grades 4-6. Special attention is given to skills and concepts to be stressed in broadly conceived geographic and historical studies of states, regions, and historical periods of development of the United States. The many practical suggestions are timely, to the point, and in keeping with recent trends.

Trends in the Organization of the Social Studies

Drawing upon a review of recently published courses of study, Ellsworth summarizes recent trends in the organization of the social studies. Cooperation with scholars in the social sciences, inclusion of content from several social sciences, and utilization of a variety of books are discussed first. Integration of ideas from many fields, and the use of unifying themes as centers around which content is organized continue to be evident. In recent years, the scope of the social studies has been defined more frequently in terms of social functions such as producing and consuming goods and transporting people and goods than in terms of persistent life situations, developmental tasks, or major life problems. The sequence of the program continues to move outward from the immediate environment to the broader environment. Recurring cycles of content are evident in provisions for the study on several grade levels of such topics as the community, transportation, and geography and history of the United States. A major trend is to focus on generalizations in setting goals, defining the scope of the social studies, and planning for the sequential development of fundamental learnings. Basic map-reading skills, reading-study skills, and group work skills are being stressed along with generalizations. Among the other trends are (a) providing for practice in citizenship activities as well as for the study of citizenship, (b) planning the program on through secondary school to promote continuity of learning, and (c) encouraging local autonomy within a state-wide framework.

Among the critical problems discussed by Ellsworth are (a) recognizing the need to break out of the expanding-horizons plan of organization, (b) planning for the study of current happenings, (c) incorporating new content into the program from the various social sciences, (d) adapting the program to individual capabilities, (e) promoting the ability to solve problems, and (f) translating goals into behavioral terms. The summary of basic principles of organization should prove to be helpful to curriculum workers in meeting these problems and in strengthening the over-all social studies program.

Current Affairs, Special Days, and Civic Participation

Principles and practices related to instruction in current affairs, observance of special days, and participation in civic activities are summarized by Fraser in Chapter V. The view is taken that over-all planning must be given to these recurring topics if they are to make significant contributions to children's learning in the social studies. The study of current affairs, including current events and current issues, is recommended because of its value in contributing to children's interests in basic units, bridging the gap between life in school and out of school, updating instructional materials, developing skills, and preparing pupils to deal with issues and problems in later life. Criteria for selecting topics for study are identified, current patterns of organization for instruction are reviewed, and sources of information on current affairs are noted. The suggested classroom procedures range from brief reporting of events to panel discussions and forums. Teachers are urged to give attention to controversial issues "in an atmosphere that emphasizes free inquiry and the weighing of evidence, if the study is to help children grow in critical thinking and problem solving skills. . . ." Observance of special days and events is considered in light of contributions to citizenship education, and a graded series of experiences is proposed to bring children's learning to higher levels from year to year. It is recommended that participation in civic activities, whether in school or in the community, be guided so that children will develop "behavior that will function as part of their daily lives throughout the year." Although basic units of work are the core of the social studies, it is pointed out that much can be added to children's growth in knowledge, attitudes, and skills by providing systematic instruction related to the recurring topics discussed in this chapter.

Skills and Processes in the Social Studies

Attention is given to a variety of skills and processes in Chapter VI, ranging from critical thinking and problem solving to utilization of industrial arts in the social studies program. The importance of insight, meaning, and significance in skill development is implicit throughout the different sections. The need for functional application of skills to questions and problems also is evident. Relationships among concepts, skills, and attitudes, although not treated systematically, are noted indirectly by several of the writers.

Critical thinking and problem solving. Ways in which thinking processes can be cultivated in the social studies are outlined by Black, Christenson, Robinson, and Whitehouse. Various types of thinking, ranging from perceptual and associative to critical and creative, are discussed first. This is followed by a review of the impact of emotion upon thinking and the role of the teacher in developing "mental hygiene in the classroom" that is conducive to effective thinking. Major attention is given to the development of critical thinking and problem solving skills. Five broad steps are outlined as follows: (a) identification of the problem, (b) comparison of the present problem with previous experience, (c) formulation of a tentative solution, (d) testing the tentative solution, and (e) acceptance or rejection of the solution. Three illustrative activities drawn from units of work on The Community, Our State, and Latin America are described in detail to show how the various phases of problem solving and critical thinking may be employed in the social studies. The basic point is made that while strict adherence to the steps of problem solving *is not* desirable, practice in problem solving procedures *is* desirable. Through problem solving activities, it is possible to develop concepts, understandings, basic skills, and attitudes that "will contribute to the development of an effective citizenry."

Communication skills. A detailed outline of skills to be developed in primary, intermediate, and upper grades is presented by Murdoch, Pflieger, and Whipple. The view is taken that the social studies program creates many needs for the use of listening, speaking, reading, writing, study, and library skills in both individual and group work. Subject matter outcomes and concept development can be enhanced by giving systematic attention to the use of skills in the social studies. In addition, skills can be maintained and brought to higher levels of development through functional use in units of study. The detailed grade level outline should prove to be quite helpful to curriculum workers provided the suggestion of the writers is followed regarding the adjustment of grade placement to fit the needs and individual differences of particular pupils.

Map reading. In keeping with the view that map reading should be given systematic attention in the social studies, Witucki presents a sequence of skills and concepts beginning with readiness development in kindergarten and extending through the complex skills taught in grade 8. The maps and globes needed at various levels are discussed along with the skills to be taught at each level. It is recommended that a planned program be provided in which there is systematic development of both skill and knowledge which will help children better understand the world in which they live. An effective program is envisioned as being related closely to the ongoing activities of children with basic skills being taught as needed. Teachers are urged to survey units of work carefully to identify points at which intensive map study may be undertaken.

Group work skills. This section, written by Rehage, is introduced by noting that much significant learning results from both *individual* work and *group* work, and that group work provides opportunities for individual development. Discriminating use of group work techniques to achieve worthy goals is emphasized throughout the section. Conditions for effective group work are discussed with special attention to clarification of tasks, utilizing varying talents, interpersonal relations, desire of individuals to participate, and size of the group. Problem solving is viewed as the process that underlies effective group work. (The reader will find it helpful to relate the points made by Rehage on problem solving to those made in Chapters II and VI.) The role of the teacher in guiding the development of group work skills is set forth in terms of basic responsibilities, which should prove to be useful in planning and evaluating one's own program of instruction.

Dramatic play. The unique contributions made by dramatic play to the child's search for an understanding of himself and his relationships to people are explored by Sagl. It is shown how the social studies come alive for children as they express their ideas, concepts, and feelings through dramatic play. Examples are given of ways in which children attempt to put themselves in the place of others as they participate in dramatic play. The role of the teacher is discussed in light of approaches, principles, and techniques for utilizing dramatic play in the social studies. Illustrative situations and excerpts from actual episodes are presented to indicate ways in which dramatic play may contribute to the development of problem solving, ability, other skills, concept development, and evaluation of children's learning. The point is emphasized that dramatic play is a tool of learning employed in the social studies to achieve significant outcomes.

Industrial arts. Issues, problems, and principles related to the use of industrial arts and construction processes in the social studies are discussed by Shaftel. The current emphasis upon the "doing side" of learning—firsthand experiences leading to discovery—in investigations of creativity and thinking ability is related to the use of industrial arts processes to develop basic understandings. The point is made that the processing of materials, construction of objects, and other firsthand experiences may become springboards to intellectual understandings. Their use is in keeping with the trend to study cultures in greater depth so that children will truly understand ways of living at a given time and place and at a given level of civilization. The processing of materials is recommended as a means of developing an understanding of the impact of science and technology upon ways of living. Educators are challenged to give attention to ways in which children can be guided to develop insight into modes of thinking and the processes involved in modern industrial productivity.

Instructional Resources

The many instructional resources needed for a balanced social studies program are discussed in Chapter VII. Television and the use of biography have been singled out for special treatment.

Resources. In the first section, Hoffman and Sarafian give an overview of instructional resources in relation to problem solving in the social studies. Instructional materials are viewed as being the "life line" of learning and as broad and varied as the imagination and resourcefulness of the teacher. A detailed example is given of ways in which concept development can be fostered through the use of carefully selected resources. Criteria for producing and selecting materials are reviewed in relation to basic purposes of the social studies, child development and learning, relationships among areas of the curriculum, physical qualities, and local needs and point of view. The importance of textbooks is discussed along with their strengths and limitations. Teachers are urged to view textbooks as "teaching assistants" rather than as so much content to be "covered and remembered." A judicious selection and use of free materials is stressed and it is recommended that each school district have a statement of policies for their use. The community school concept is emphasized in the discussion of community resources which can be used to vitalize instruction in the social studies in a variety of ways. The most important resource of all is declared to be "teachers who choose materials wisely and use them creatively."

Television. Special problems involved in the use of television in the social studies are discussed in the next section by Pflieger.[8] Television is viewed as an aid to the teacher, not as a panacea for solving all educational problems. Unique contributions of television include: (a) the bridging of time and space, (b) the "personalizing" of key individuals of importance in the current scene, (c) the using of the "know-how" of the entertainment industry to produce educational programs, and (d) the portraying of current social conditions. Among the limitations of television as an educational resource are: (a) reduction in opportunity for discussion, (b) lack of two-way communication, and (c) the "one-shot" presentation (unless either a video-tape or kinescope is prepared). Commercial programs that meet sound criteria as well as educational programs are recommended for use in the social studies. Individualized television instruction in which a teletest teaching machine is attached to the receiver is mentioned as a possibility that is in the offing. Detailed attention is given to open-circuit and closed-circuit television, in-school and out-of-school viewing, arrangements and techniques for effective utilization, and the concept of team teaching involving the television teacher and the classroom teacher.

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[8] Material on television contributed by Hoffman and Sarafian has been shifted to this section.

Biography. The role of key people in human affairs, both past and present, is a basic element in the biographical method discussed by Brown in the last section of this chapter. The use of biography in the schools from the time of Rousseau to the present is traced with a penetrating analysis of its changing role in the instructional program. The values of the study of biography are treated in detail in order to sensitize teachers to the appreciations, concepts, and other key learnings that are possible outcomes of depth studies of great men and women. Special note is made of contributions of the study of biography to the vitalization of history, the enrichment of historical facts, the identification and development of democratic values, and the enrichment and improvement of one's own personality. The vast storehouse of biographical materials is illustrated by the inclusion of a listing of a large number of sources for use in elementary schools. Many specific methods are proposed, ranging from the story hour to individual biographical investigation. Of special significance is the stress placed on the teacher's role in stimulating interest in and study of great men and women and their impact upon the progress of civilization.

Planning for Instruction

In Chapter VIII, a combination of principles and recent practices for planning instruction are presented. The role of the teacher in formulating objectives, the design of units of work, planning for a specific class, and procedures for incorporating new content in units of study are reviewed.

The philosopher teacher. Preston states that each teacher must take responsibility for the formulation of goals and should be viewed as a philosopher who has insight into beliefs, values, and principles of conduct that reflect purposes of society. Doubt is raised concerning the value of placing reliance upon long lists of objectives as typically developed in curriculum revision. It is argued that such lists are of greatest help to those who were involved in preparing them. The formulation of goals by teachers results from a broadening and deepening of experience and can be facilitated by beginning with the teachers' own instructional problems. Meaningful goals emerge as teachers work intelligently and conscientiously at daily teaching tasks and receive respect, help and stimulation from their principals and supervisors.

Planning for a class. An analytical treatment of how specific planning may be done for a class is given by Jenkins. Criteria are suggested for selecting units of study within the existing social studies framework. Illustrative categories of concepts and generalizations are noted and examples of generalizations that may serve as objectives are listed. The difficult task of pre-planning questions and problems related to generalizations is handled concretely and practically. This is followed by a consideration of planning related to methods of attacking problems and evaluating outcomes. The underlying view is that detailed pre-planning of units of study is needed to achieve a high level of quality in the instructional program.

New content in units of work. Ways in which new content may be incorporated in units of study are reviewed by Hansen and Ormsby. The central idea is that systematic rather than haphazard approaches should be taken to make new content fully ready for pupil use. Specific ways to identify new content, to determine grade placement, and to organize content for pupil use are described. The specific examples of ways in which basic generalizations may be incorporated in units of study are practical and to the point. The authors believe that practical guides for teachers, which are a combination of units and manuals, are effective in readying content for pupil use. The point is stressed that "to be prepared is not to be restricted."

Children of Varying Ability

Planning for children of varying ability in order to attain a high level of scholarship is discussed by Sand and Joyce in Chapter IX. Four basic ideas are stressed in their presentation: (a) creation of an atmosphere that supports each child, (b) dedication to excellence of learning, (c) emphasis upon individual initiative and responsibility, and (d) re-examination of subject matter to identify structure, modes of inquiry, and basic ideas. A primary task of the teacher is to develop a cooperative climate in which criticism and realism are respected, scholarship is valued, and no child is neglected because of his difficulties in learning. Attention is given to such issues, problems, and practices as non-promotion, acceleration, homogeneous grouping, special classes, the non-graded school, and team teaching. Promising practices are highlighted in three illustrative units of work. Deeper ways of viewing a culture are stressed along with techniques for making cultural comparisons and the need to provide cross-cultural studies in foreign language teaching as well as in the social studies. Differentiation of instruction through the planned relating of one area of the curriculum to another is illustrated by showing relationships between the social studies and reading and arithmetic. A helpful summary of guidelines for use in planning for children of varying ability is followed by a concluding statement in which it is pointed out that the "average" child is unique, too. "Planning for (children of) varying ability, then, means planning for everyone."

Evaluation

The need for a comprehensive, continuing, and cooperative program of evaluation to assess the multiple learnings that grow out of social studies experiences is emphasized by Wrightstone in Chapter X. Both formal and informal devices are recommended for use in appraising children's growth in attitudes, interests, information, concepts, generalizations, and skills. Selected standardized tests for use in appraising certain concepts and skills are listed. Specific examples are given of test items to use in evaluating map-reading skills, sources of information, interests, and attitudes. These examples can be modified and adapted to fit a variety of types of content at different grade levels. Because of the wide range of outcomes in the social studies and the limitations of existing standardized tests, Wrightstone gives considerable attention to the proper use of charts, checklists, observation, essay and oral examinations, questionnaires, interviews, personal reports, anecdotal records, socio-metric methods, and self-ratings. Teachers are cautioned to recognize the weaknesses and limitations of each device that is used and to interpret data in light of the individual child's background and pattern of development. Evidence gathered by the teacher should be used to help each child achieve maximum development "as a well-adjusted and democratic personality and as an informed citizen who thinks critically and who is motivated by desirable civic interests and attitudes."

CHAPTER II

Social and Psychological Foundations

THOSE responsible for deciding what to include in elementary school social studies and how to organize and teach what has been selected have available three major sources of information to guide their decisions. One source is the nature of the society furnishing the education. Here it is important to consult not only the persisting characteristics of the society but also the changing forms of the problems it faces. A second source is the nature of the society's children. In this case, what the children are like, what they might become, and how they develop and learn all are necessary kinds of information. A third source is the nature of the organized disciplines which are relevant to curriculum construction in the social studies. These disciplines can be viewed from two standpoints—knowledge already accumulated and ways of making new knowledge in that field.[1]

In this chapter only the first two sources are considered, those commonly called the social and psychological foundations of education. The chapter is organized into the following sections:

1. Societal Demands and Changing Social Problems
2. Children's Social Perceptions
3. Action Principles for Studies of Child Development
4. Learning and Problem Solving

Attention is given to the third source in the following chapter.

Section One: Societal Demands and Changing Social Problems

Alice Miel

The expression, *demands of society,* often calls up a picture of a stern parent or teacher standing over a child demanding compliance with a specific request. Although the term is rather misleading, it is well established and requires clarification lest curriculum planning in its name be misguided. It is true that in tradition-oriented societies the individual can be taught specific rules of conduct ready made for application to specific types of human relationship. The demands of democracy, that is what the society asks or expects of the individual, are of a quite different order. In fact, it is more accurate in a democracy to speak not of what the society needs but of what the *individual needs and wants to become* to live usefully and with satisfaction in his society. In a democracy it is not a case of the society against the individual or the individual against the society. The interests are mutual. The society is a good society if individuals can flower in it and they can flower only if the society provides the conditions of *order* made up of freedom and restraint and of *justice* made up of respect for the individual and the rule of law.

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[1] This analysis is presented in: Foshay, Arthur W. "A Modest Proposal." *Educational Leadership* 18:506-16, 28; May 1961.

The Overarching Demand of a Democracy

A democracy makes a unique demand on its members. Such a society is oriented only in part to maintaining honored traditions and preserving the basic social inventions which give it its special character. Those very inventions provide for the possibility of response to changing conditions. A democratic society invites its members to subscribe to basic values and to conform to the law of the land and to ways of living together found useful over generations. At the same time it lays upon its members the responsibility for protesting arrangements that have outlived their usefulness, of challenging instances in which the society is not living up to its ideals, and of inventing better ways of realizing the potential of democracy. To play his part in maintaining-advancing his society in this way, the individual is required to exercise judgment in one situation after the other. The individual freedom which democracy is designed to protect and enhance carries with it the pleasure and pain of making choices and the obligation to assume due responsibility for the consequences of the choices. In this activity the individual is guided, outside of the law, by only the most general set of ideals and a few flexible and approximate rules of conduct. A man enjoys (has the benefit of) freedom only if he enjoys (finds joy in) freedom, only if he sees choice making as a stimulating, fulfilling experience. Therefore, the mental health of the individual in a democracy depends upon his feeling of adequacy in making the decisions he is called upon to make and his feeling of satisfaction in the decision making process.

The Demands of a Democracy in More Detail

In a democracy the individual must decide or help to decide many difficult questions. Examples of those having special importance for his society are:

. . . How much and what kinds of difference and likeness to encourage: the question of how to view respect for people.

... How to reconcile private interests and public interests: the question of how to view the common welfare.
... How to use fruitfully both majority and minority views: the question of how to view consensus.
... How to maintain harmony between individual autonomy and external authority: the question of how to view authority

Each of the questions is a special form of the basic problem of maintaining the delicate balance between the requirements of the individual and the requirements of the group, a balance which is the central and unique idea of democracy.

As he makes choices of behavior in a democracy other problems arise for the individual:

... Maintaining such a balance between giving and receiving that sharing takes place.
... Sending and receiving different forms of messages and sharing meaning in such ways that communication is achieved.
... Maintaining individuality while cooperating to achieve purposes important to a wider group.
... Participating as a group member, leading and following as appropriate.
... Demonstrating loyalty through protesting against the society's actions deemed unjust or ill advised while conforming to the arrangements by which the society maintains order.
... Exercising citizenship through claiming rights and taking responsibility.

This is an outline form of only one way of looking at the task of socialization in a democracy.[2] There are others and it matters not which of several useful formulations is adopted provided that those responsible for the quality of elementary school social studies programs have a clear conception of the nature of their society. This is a necessary prerequisite to helping children arrive at an orderly view of democratic beliefs, which surely is one task of the school. No one can predict the precise moment when a child or group of children will be in a position to take the step of abstracting a systematic view from a series of more or less scattered generalizations. The points when attention to such a task will be fruitful can be determined only in the course of direct work with children. However, something is known about the order of events leading up to building with young people a theory of democracy. Liberal amounts of mutually reinforcing firsthand and vicarious experience promising a high yield of generalizations about democracy are necessary. Careful examination of the meanings of such experience is also necessary to cause the generalizations to emerge in the form of statements which can be communicated clearly to others. Only when several generalizations earned by children in such a manner are available can it be hoped that children will achieve an organized view of democracy which they deeply understand and care about.

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[2] For a more detailed development of these ideas see Miel, Alice and Peggy Brogan, *More Than Social Studies.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1957. Chapters 1 and 2.

Changing Social Problems as Sources of Curriculum Content

Even the more detailed problems of decision making in a democracy outlined in the previous section are not met in such abstract form in real life. Always, as they appear to the individual, they wear a different guise, depending upon the persons involved and the time and place of the encounter. The elementary school has a choice, in planning its social studies curriculum, of trying to build generalizations about democracy that are destined to remain glib and empty phrases and that tend to close the door to further thought, or of seeking to build a quality of knowledge and commitment and active follow-through on beliefs and concerns that is adequate for functioning in today's complicated world.

If the latter course is chosen, an intelligent approach would be to study *what the society is becoming* to locate the promising specifics of experience out of which useful generalizations may grow.

As a people goes along living its history, the observers in the group begin to call attention to shortcomings and to note distressing trends. They imply the useful question: "Do we like what we are becoming?"

What the People Are Becoming: The Darker Side

When this section was first outlined, the nation was just getting over its shock at the extent of rigging of quiz shows on television. Fresh outbursts of anti-semitism were occurring. Juvenile crime was said to be on the increase. Mothers of young children in the South were abusing parents who sent their children to newly desegregated schools. Cars were sporting bigger and better tailfins, not only using up valuable metals but also, it was claimed, diverting money from such public services as health and education. School and community libraries were being combed by superpatriots for text and other books considered unsafe. Undue conformity and lack of excellence were being deplored. The rootlessness of an increasingly mobile population was a matter of concern. Fear was expressed over the dehumanizing effects which seem to accompany living in a crowded, pushbutton world. It was held that the public generally was altogether too apathetic about maintaining democracy at home and abroad. Representatives of youth groups at the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth accused their elders of having failed to set an example of living guided by decent and humane values.

Some of the problems were quickly replaced by others differing only in the specific form they took. For example, ghostwriting of term papers and theses soon took the headlines away from quiz show exposes. Other problems were already on the way to correction by the time of writing. Smaller cars trimmed of excess adornment became the mode, though it could not be demonstrated that the savings thus achieved were applied to the support of community services.

If one has an eye only for the darker side of the picture, one can find quite a catalog of human failings that have persisted over the centuries. Is there any hope through social education? An affirmative answer is based on assumptions for which there is considerable foundation in fact: (1) there is a brighter side to what the people of the United States are becoming; (2) there are available in the society ways of tackling conditions needing correction.

What the People Are Becoming: The Brighter Side

The same newspapers which report the shortcomings of man also reflect individual and group achievements which are themselves gains for the human race and which also continue to demonstrate what man might be. Success stories in this category are agreement with other nations on a declaration of universal human rights followed by a declaration of the rights of children, civil rights legislation, reduction of economic inequality and growing social security, and virtual achievement of universal education.

In addition, a new mood is developing. The very expression of the concerns outlined in the previous section is one step in facing the underlying conditions and moving to correct them. When a new, young, and vigorous president called upon the people of the nation to be strong and to make sacrifices, a readiness had already developed. Awareness had been growing that there were other people in the world, that they would welcome help in developing their human and material resources, and that the United States of America had an important world role to fill. Once their elders began to show that they cared about human values and respected human intelligence, the youth of the nation showed themselves quite ready to bring their idealism out from under cover and to give way to their very real interest in learning. The response to the idea of the Peace Corps showed a shift from an earlier preoccupation of young people with enclosing themselves and their families in safe little nests supported by safe jobs with regular hours. The generosity and community-mindedness that had long been characteristic of the people of the United States was given new outlets.

New Tasks Facing the Nation

It would be as much an error to overplay encouraging signs of basic vigor and integrity and power in the people of a maturing democracy as to declare that there were no such assets on which to build. There is much hard work to be done by a newly energized nation. For example, can solutions be found to the psychological, religious, and physical problems involved in bringing under control the explosion of population now occurring? Can the world, in other words, fulfill the promises made to children in the United Nations declaration, guaranteeing each one's "right to adequate nutrition, housing, recreation, and medical services" (to quote the words of the declaration), as well as his right to be educated and to develop within "conditions of freedom and dignity"? Can the people in the well-developed countries help those in countries yet to be developed to achieve their aspirations? Will the people of the United States be able to face with grace and dignity the possibility that they may have to learn to be a second-rate power as some of the new, young nations first catch up, then overtake them? Can the people of the United States learn to consume less wastefully and conspicuously while still an affluent society? Can they work through the adjustments required by automation in ways that are fair to all groups and that use the time thus released to accomplish worthy purposes for individuals and the society? In all the crowded, organized bigness of modern society, can the individual be saved from anonymity?

Of quite a different order is the problem of rapidly expanding knowledge. Can modern man learn to order his growing stock of information in ways that make the essentials of it widely accessible? Can specialists manage to speak in communication with one another and with the layman so that together they can solve human problems? In particular can the social sciences be given the support necessary to enable modern man to understand and save himself?

What the United States of America Can Count On

The nation has been fortunate in its location on the globe and in its natural resources. But it has been even more fortunate in the conception of a society to which it has been able to give living form. The values declared before the world in its basic documents may be imperfectly realized but they remain the stated commitment of the society, available as ideals to give direction to future development. The processes of democracy may not always work as intended but they are available to be used in correcting the evils growing out of man's shortcomings. As long as there is room for protest, for the minority peacefully to try to convert the majority, democracy will maintain its self-correcting nature.

The United States of America also has at its disposal a great fund of knowledge relating to human potentialities and how they may be developed. It is realized more with each day that highly developed intelligence, creative power, and skill in a population is the only hope in a world where this nation is outnumbered many times over by forces unsympathetic to individual freedom.

A NEEDED EMPHASIS IN SOCIAL LEARNING

Starting with a people with a relatively high level of education, who know what it is like to live under freedom, this nation has the ability and the motivation to meet the challenge of changing social problems such as those discussed in these pages. This nation wants to keep its freedom. This can be done only by setting sights higher and working for a level of freedom now only dimly conceived. All signs seem to point to the kind of emphasis now needed in social education. There has been much talk of education for excellence and quality. Such an emphasis, if misunderstood, leads to senseless pressures to spend more and more time on mind-deadening school and home work. It is quite a different matter to put the emphasis on a quality of experience designed to affect deeply the feelings, the understandings, and the abilities of children in the elementary school today.

An emphasis on quality in education would mean above all striving toward the development of *personalities who are open to the world.* Schactel's discussion of this point will suffice to show its relevance to the kind of world into which the modern child has been born:

> The openness of man toward the world means that he has potentially many ways in which to relate to and find his place in the world and that there is not just one but many kinds of personal worlds in which he can live depending on the direction he goes in and how far he goes in it. This means not only that he has the potentiality for adaptation to different cultures or ways of life, but that these potentialities are in everybody narrowed by the accidental fact that he is born and brought up in a particular culture and group. It also means that both circumstance and choice may enable him to look beyond the horizon of the culture and social group into which he has been born and thus relate both to aspects of the world transcending those defined by the environment of birth and to the "stranger"—the person who does not belong to the in-group of family, home town, native country—thus experiencing the humanity of other men.[8]

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[8] Schactel, Ernest G. *Metamorphosis.* New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1959. p. 14.

Schactel goes on to comment that to have a fully open encounter with the world "does not necessarily depend on physical separation from one's home town or country." Furthermore, he makes it clear that neither "the greater mobility of modern man nor the inventions of modern communication techniques have helped him to overcome his urge to seek protection in conformity with and dependence on the in-group." In these words are implied an exciting charge, to those whose privilege it is to teach children through the social studies, to help the children to emerge from embeddedness and "to become capable of interest in and love for the larger and richer world" in which they live.

To help children emerge from embeddedness will require helping them with a special kind of knowing of both their own culture and the nature of their embeddedness in it, and of the other cultures of the world. But more than knowing is necessary. Judgment also must be developed.

As men seek to learn the ways in which they are alike and seek to build on their common interests, in their efforts to create a peaceful world, there are two dangers. One is that the mediocre or worst rather than the best features of various cultures may be selected for survival. The other is that likeness may be valued more than difference and that constuctive cultural variety may not be kept alive. Making judgments with regard to aspects of a culture is part of a larger requirement. Essentially, the world needs to learn how to judge a man. What is deeply offensive in terms of basic human values? What is a surface difference offensive only because of the habits or sights or odors to which one is accustomed? Within the differences in language, dress, foods, and forms of recreation which have grown up around the world, what is the constructive core of human likeness which tells one man that he has found in another a kindred soul?

Knowledge and judgment are incomplete without deep feeling for people. There is, as yet, only partial understanding of how an individual becomes a participating member of a society, in the sense of caring about what the society stands for, caring where the society is going, caring about what happens to individuals in it, and investing himself in efforts to make the society better. Those growing into membership in the society will be called upon to discover ways of relating to one another suitable for modern conditions (vast numbers of people trying to share limited resources and space). Can their teachers help them to learn to use their resources and the time released by advances in technology to be creative, in the many ways man can be creative, to savor the wonder of living by finding joy *within experience* as well as in anticipated outcomes?

If the social studies are to serve their function in the elementary school as one means of contributing to the socialization process, that is, of helping children to become more intelligent, useful, and committed members of their society, then those responsible for providing opportunities for experience within this area of the curriculum must be responsive to the peculiar nature of the demands made on the individual by the type of society doing the educating and to the current forms of the perennial problems which that society faces.

The social studies are about people. Can teachers and their advisers keep that one fact foremost in all their planning? Can they make the social studies a genuine search for meaning, not just of terms or even of relationships between sets of facts but of human existence and what it might become? That would truly be education for excellence.

Section Two: Children's Social Perception

Frank J. Estvan

If a farm scene were projected on a screen, and the readers of this Yearbook were to indicate what they saw, it would quickly become apparent that a farm is not simply a farm. A woman who had taught several years in elementary school had this to say:

> Good land developed by hard work and the application of good farm machinery. The farm family has gone without some things in order to buy the means of greater production. The farmhouse is small, the barn is large. The farmer and his wife feel that in this day of machines, airplanes, tractors, trucks, they are saving through investing in their land for greater prosperity.

A man with similar teaching background responded:

> A sum total of economic workings is being shown—farm produce, exchange, production, areas of living, interdependence, and technological advancement. All relatively unplanned, but working within each other as a relatively smooth organized society. This is modern America at work. This is freedom of choice and an opportunity of many ways.

Children, too, exhibit wide variations in their "stories." When this slide was shown to a nursery school boy, he immediately burst out, "That says, 'Beep, beep, tractor.'" Another pondered in this fashion,

> I, um, this is . . . this . . . this is Pammy and Mickey, and Daddy breakin' the playground, too. Daddy an' the playground, look!

Asked why he wanted to keep this picture, a first grade boy attending

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This section was reviewed by Professors John Bernd, Ross Coxe, and Jean Fair of Wayne State University.

a one-room rural school reasoned, "Because when I grow up I can probably be a tractor man myself." A sixth grade urban girl, on the other hand, rejected this picture on the grounds that, "I'm not much interested in farming, and I wouldn't want to stand there watching trucks."[4]

There is little question that people "see" different things in a farm scene; it is many things to many people. This is what is meant by perception: an interpretation of a situation in terms of which the individual responds. As one reacts, the resulting "feedback" confirms the initial perception or suggests modifications. The former would sustain the observer's approach to the situation whereas the latter would call for a shift in keeping with his new orientation. Hence, perception is a constant element in the behavior of human beings, and, quite probably, for all higher animal life.

In the farm situation noted above, three characteristics of perception stand out. One is that the perceiver is selective in what he observes. Second, the individual brings a store of meanings or concepts to a situation which form the basis for his interpretation or adjustment. Third, perception often involves affective states or emotions.

The relationship between what one perceives and how one acts implies that learning is not simply a matter of changing behavior, but depends upon a change in perceptions. In a very real sense, therefore, teaching involves the creation of new areas of awareness or a sensitivity to elements in a situation which were not "seen" previously and which, consequently, did not exist as far as the learner was concerned.

NATURE AND DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN'S SOCIAL PERCEPTION

The most important thing which can be noted about children's social perception is its insistence. There seems to be a need for giving meaning to the world with which boys and girls come in contact. Unfamiliar and complex though the situation may be, few dismiss it lightly as something "I don't know" or table it for the future "when I grow up." Children prefer to take a chance or "guess" about the meaning of what they experience rather than let these things go by as unknowns. A child in the lower grades, for example, will not consciously postpone setting up an image (perception) of Communism or the "cold war" until the sixth grade or whatever level it is taught in school.

A corollary to this insistence upon meaning is the highly individualized nature of perception. It is quite probable that no two people perceive in exactly the same way and, consequently, each of us lives in his own world defined by a unique combination of perceptions. Although general patterns may be discerned on the part of various groups of children, individual members of a group differ widely among themselves.

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[4] Responses to a series of life-situation pictures of first and sixth grade pupils attending one-room and city schools are described in Estvan, Frank J. and Elizabeth W. Estvan. *The Child's World: His Social Perception.* New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959. 302 p. The ideas in this paper are taken primarily from Chapters 23 and 24.

Perceptual development proceeds in levels from (1) simple enumeration to (2) a consideration of the parts of a situation to (3) an awareness of meaningful wholes. The very young child will simply name or list familiar clues which he recognizes in a social situation ("a man, tractor, and grass"). As he gains in maturity, he will ascribe certain characteristics to these clues in terms of form, size, texture, movement, color, and other qualities ("a man on a tractor cutting the hay"). At the highest level of perception, he will synthesize these elements into larger and more meaningful relationships, and place the situation in a context which goes beyond the immediate presentation (farming as a basic economic activity). This process is the result of increasingly refined differentiation on the part of the observer as well as the ability to note more subtle relationships.

In addition to level, perceptual development is also a matter of types. Children are more likely to respond to the people in a life situation than to the natural environment or cultural matrix. It may be that mountains and valleys or boats and trains are simpler and more concrete than the vagaries and complexities of human nature, but children do not know this. For them, these things seem important only as they relate to human beings; what people do with these things and how. Nothing is more important for the elementary school child than the human element. Another aspect of type of perception is children's recognition of external or objective characteristics before the internal workings or dynamics of social situations. Thus, the general order of children's awareness seems to be first the *who* followed by the *what* (structural), and finally the *how* or *why* (functional).

Use of a setting or field in which life situations are viewed is also a mark of perceptual development. The very young child tends to see social situations as if they were "free-floating." With increasing awareness, situations are more frequently placed in a space-time setting. The farm may be located in Michigan or "out West," and it may be "modern" rather than "long ago" because of the tractor. Of the two, a consciousness of spatial background usually precedes the temporal. The use of such referents by boys and girls may be disappointing in their lack of frequency and preciseness. Whether this is a matter of maturation or learning is not known. It may be that with increased emphasis in school there would be greater awareness of space and time on the part of elementary pupils.

Attitudinal components of perception also change markedly during the elementary school period. This is not to say that children come to school without strong predispositions. For example, witness the first grade farm boy who already envisioned himself as a "tractor man some day." Sixth graders, however, show greater consistency in their feelings toward life situations as well as more positive or socially acceptable attitudes. Yet, feelings and attitudes are not uniformly applied to all social situations for our sixth grade girl still did not like the farm—or, perhaps, was even more convinced than in first grade that this was life-space for boys rather than for girls.

Lastly, children perceive different values in the same social situation. Some selected the farm as the best picture of a series because "I like to go in the fields" or because "I like to run tractors"; others because of its vocational significance. One young farm boy pointed out, "Because I have to farm, I need all the farming." Age does not necessarily resolve such work-play valuing in favor of one or the other. As noted in the adult reactions, the farm can mean family security to one person and stand as a bulwark of the American economy to the other. Each of these represents a complex or integration of values rather than a distillation of *the value* which a social situation holds for the individual.

FACTORS INFLUENCING CHILDREN'S SOCIAL PERCEPTION

Quite obviously, there is a physical basis for perception. As was recognized long ago in the tale of the blind men and the elephant, the nature of the sensory data made available to the individual will influence his perceptions. The range of normalcy in sensory discrimination is, apparently, broad for most of us see a man as a man and a tree as a tree. At some point, however, differences in the sensory apparatus of the perceiver (sight, sound, smell, etc.) will lead to differences in his perception of social situations.

Language is a means of dealing with experience, and verbal symbols are required to name, describe, or interpret life situations. The concept must take linguistic form for utility in thinking and communication. Hence, language development and perception go together. As the child acquires a greater stock of concepts, he is able to make finer discriminations in his perception of the world around him. What is first grossly identified as a "building" may be recognized as a "factory" when this concept has been developed and is available to the learner. With increasing tools (concepts) at his command, the child may be able to perceive the differences between an "oil refinery" and a "power plant."

Intelligence, also, is related to social perception. High I.Q. is associated with superiority in the ideational aspects of perception, but appears to have little or no bearing on emotional or feeling tones. The brighter child reaches a higher level of recognition in that he has the capacity to integrate more elements in constructing larger and more meaningful wholes. He also has a greater sense of orientation as reflected in his use of both spatial and temporal referents. The number of ideas or concepts a perceiver brings to a life situation, however, is no index of how strong or "good" he will feel about it.

The roles of the sexes are both biologically and culturally determined. Whatever the relative influence of these factors may be, there is increasing evidence that boys and girls "see" the world in different ways. The former may be somewhat more adept with respect to ideational aspects, but the more striking difference lies in the realm of attitudes. Girls tend to react more emotionally to life situations. They give greater preference to primary institutions such as the home and the church, and show greater concern for social status. Boys exhibit greater regard for the "outside" world symbolized in such pictures as a dam and farm. It appears that elementary school children are in the process of identifying themselves with their respective roles in society, and this fact colors their view of the world.

Perception is related to personality. Although differences exist regarding the use of the term, personality, and just what constitutes the unifying factors or integrating principles which account for characteristic modes of behavior, perception is a part of the individual's response system and, therefore, of his "personality." That personality influences perception or that the nature of perception is a determinant of personality can be posited with equal vigor.[5] In any event, characteristic modes of response to life situations are strikingly evident among children. In the main, they are matters of feeling tone or attitudes although the ideational aspect of perception may also be involved. For the "typical" school child, personality differences seldom take the form of bizarre explanations or marked distortions of what a scene may represent. Illustrative of feeling tones is the child who sees conflict in practically all social scenes, one who expresses anxiety or fear to most situations, or who exhibits optimism, friendliness, and a generally positive view of the world. Examples of "themes" which have been noted are that of play and recreational possibilities and, in the case of a first grade urban girl, a monetary concern which appeared in nine out of fourteen life situations which she viewed.

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[5] The extent of such studies may be gathered from: Bruner, Jerome S., and David Krech, editors. *Perception and Personality: A Symposium.* Durham: Duke University Press, 1950; and Blake, Robert R., and Glenn V. Ramsey. *Perception: An Approach to Personality.* New York: Ronald Press, 1951.

Most inclusive of all the factors which seem to be associated with perception is experiential background. Among the more common variables in this connection are the type of community in which the child lives, the social status of his family, his age, and his educational experiences in school and out. Although rural-urban distinctions are rapidly disappearing in many parts of our country, children living in these areas do show different emphases in their perception of the world. It has been shown, too, that lower status and higher status children look upon conditions of poverty from different points of view and different emotional overtones.[6] Most dramatic is the change which takes place in the ability to interpret life situations, and in the development of socially approved attitudes that come with six years of growing up (learning) between grades one and six. The fact that social perception is associated with so many variables would lessen the force of nativistic explanations of its growth and development (maturation), and lend support to the important role played by experience as determined by a wide range of "conditions" constituting one's environment.

SOCIAL PERCEPTION AND TEACHING

Attention needs to be given to children's social perception at every phase of the teaching-learning process. As the initial interpretation and adjustment to a situation is made by a learner, it is important for teachers to know how pupils approach a school experience. Is this new unit on the farm perceived as having a very direct bearing on the learner's way of life or is it something which exists far away in the abstract? Is it of equal significance to girls and boys? Is it a mundane, "meat and potatoes" topic or is it the bulwark of our economy if not American democracy? Whatever the learner's perceptions may be, the insightful teacher will try to discover their nature for this is where guidance must begin in attempts to broaden and enrich meanings about the farm. This is essentially what instruction attempts to do: to extend the scope of what the individual responds to (perceives) and to create new patterns of relationships. Hence, perception is also a basic element in evaluation, for the test of good teaching should involve at least two questions: (1) To *what* does the learner respond as a result of his experiences' which formerly were closed areas and, (2) is his response (*how*) consistent with the democratic framework of our culture and his own developing pattern of values?

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[6] Estvan, Frank J. "The Relationship of Social Status, Intelligence, and Sex of Ten- and Eleven-Year-Old Children to an Awareness of Poverty." *Genetic Psychology Monograph* 44:3-60; June 1952.

Because concepts are the basis for perception, one of the major tasks of the school is to develop systems of meanings. The farm is not studied as a farm per se but in connection with patterns of family living, conservation efforts, economic enterprises, and other activities. Its changing form in various space-time contexts is noted, *viz.*, the New England farm, the Midwestern, or farms in India; the pioneer farm, grandfather's farm, the "modern" farm. In such a system, ideas are not strung in serial order as beads on a chain, but are interrelated in patterns so that one idea touches upon many others in the "field." This means, therefore, that there is no one systematic or "correct" approach for developing a system of meanings. There are many equally valid starting points, the important thing being that consideration is given to the way elements in the idea-field are integrated or related.

The curriculum must be designed for the gradual refinement of perceptions over time rather than in terms of "one-shot" treatments. This requirement stems from the nature of the development of perception noted above: identification of elements–description of parts–integration of the whole. Hence, at no grade level can "complete" perceptions be developed, if ever. The study of the home by the first or second grade child or the community by the second or third, obviously, cannot result in as high a level of perceptual development as is possible later on. For greater awareness, it is necessary to perceive an object or event again when the learner can bring a greater store of concepts and background on which to build richer and more extended meanings. This need not be a repetition of home or community study as such, but preferably an experience that places the home or community in a different frame of reference or setting. Such possibilities include a comparison of our home and community with those of other lands or of other times in which case similarities may be noted as well as points of difference. Thus, in studying other homes and people, the learner may gain increasing perception of his own home and community life. To avoid sheer repetition and to insure the continuing development of insights (perceptions), the curriculum must be planned in terms of the total span of public education rather than for any one segment–primary, elementary, secondary or, even, higher.

In building up more meaningful perceptions, emphasis must be placed on integration and differentiation. As has been noted, perception depends upon the ability to make increasingly fine discriminations among the clues or symbols representing social situations. At the same time, development consists of the ability to bring together or synthesize meanings on a constantly wider scale. The limited perceptual field of the young child and his difficulty in integrating clues to make meaningful wholes suggest an organization of learning experiences that are not too broad in scope and which stress the relationship between structure and function. Growth would take the form of increasing ability to make a more detailed and analytical examination of closely related ideas, to place them in a space-time setting, and to relate these ideas with other bodies of knowledge. The first can be achieved within content areas through the conventional school subjects, but the latter requires going outside a particular subject—often to history, literature, the arts, science. The broadening of perceptions achieved through the interrelating of concepts from many content areas seems to call for "integrated courses" at some points in the educational program. The general design for curriculum, hence, would be to begin with rather general considerations of structure and function in areas of limited scope. Following this would be a gradual extension into space and time accompanied by more analytical discriminations. Finally, would come the broadest kinds of experiences integrating the ideas of many "subject" areas for the development of even greater insights and perceptions.

SUMMARY

Perception is a basic component of mental life and thinking. Evidence is accumulating regarding the nature of children's social awareness, and the factors which influence its development. Among the latter, learning is of prime importance. Hence, a consideration of social perception has many implications for school practice: curriculum organization, teaching methods and materials, and evaluation. Properly guided, children may develop the habit of being perceptive to the end that their social behavior will be more insightful and intelligent.

Section Three: Action Principles from Studies of Child Development

Lavone Hanna and Neva Hagaman

Knowledge about child growth and development has increased greatly in recent years. Research carried on by Prescott and his colleagues at the Institute for Child Study at the University of Maryland,

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This section was reviewed by William Cowan, Aubrey Haan, and Gladys Potter. Much of the material for this section was taken from Hanna, Lavone, Gladys Potter and Neva Hagaman. *Unit Teaching in the Elementary School* and will appear largely in this form in the revised edition. It is used with the permission of Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc. See also Lane, Howard and Mary Beauchamp. *Understanding Human Development*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. 482 p.

by Jean Macfarlane's group at the Institute of Child Welfare of the University of California, by the Committee on Human Development of the Univeristy of Chicago, by the staff of the Horace-Mann Lincoln Institute, and by staffs at other child study centers have added to and substantiated the findings of psychiatrists, cultural anthropologists, biologists, physicians, psychologists, and behavioral scientists about how children grow and develop, are socialized and acculturated, and acquire the social learnings needed to live in today's world. As Giles says,

> . . . The young sciences of the past twenty-five years have given us research material which has the most powerful meaning, if it were but generally known and used. Slowly it is beginning to be known, yet development of its understanding, and still more of its use, is painfully behind the need.[7]

Teachers need to know how children grow and develop in order to provide optimum learning experiences in terms of their needs and interests; they need to understand the developmental tasks which occupy all children at certain stages of their development. They need to understand the major role which inter-personal relationships an environment play in helping children develop healthy personalities and resolve the personal-social conflicts which all children must resolve if they are to become all they are able in terms of their potentialities and environment. Teachers also need to recognize the relationship of self-perception and learning.

GROWTH CHARACTERISTICS OF CHILDREN

Teachers in most elementary schools are faced with groups of 25 to 35 children all of approximately the same chronological age. But this is usually the only characteristic the children have in common. Any group of children will vary in all other characteristics—they will be tall, short, fat, thin; with blond, red, black, or brown hair; with white, yellow, brown, and black skin; they will be gifted, bright, average, dull, active, quiet, restless, withdrawn, brave, fearful, shy, aggressive, loved, rejected, healthy and undernourished; and they come from rich, average, and impoverished backgrounds.

Each child's development is influenced by characteristics which he has inherited and by everything that has happened to him since conception. And while all individuals normally pass through the same developmental stages in an orderly manner, the rate of growth varies from individual to individual. Each child has his own time clock which was punched at the time of his conception and little can be done to change it. Growth also is asymmetrical and uneven: large muscles before small muscles, some organs before others.

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[7] Giles, H. H. *Human Dynamics and Human Relations*. New York: New York University Press, 1954. p. 1.

Each child is unique and varies from all other individuals not only in physical characteristics, rate of growth and experiential background but in temperment, intelligence, interests, and sensory acuity. Moreover, research suggests that part of an individual's uniqueness is due to the selections he makes of the things in his environment to which he reacts. No two children, consequently, learn exactly the same thing or in the same way.

> The human organism has a highly selective awareness and idiomatically patterned perception with emotional and affective response, which operate seriously to alter the seemingly objective stimulus situation or problem for each subject. . . . Each human being may learn in a different way from the same situation or lesson or experience. He selects what is to him highly relevant and individually significant and may ignore all else.[8]

Because children in elementary school are grouped according to chronological age, teachers tend to generalize about first graders and fourth graders. But there is danger, Ambrose and Miel warn us, in generalizing too broadly about general growth patterns. Growth usually follows the same sequence but some children may depart from what is considered "normal development." What is typical behavior and growth for one individual may not conform to the normal growth pattern for the majority. By the time children reach school age these differences in maturity are obvious. Some six-years-olds may not be ready for reading physically; others may lack readiness because of deprived environments or unfavorable interpersonal relations. Experiences which facilitate development and learning for some children may retard or inhibit it for others.

> When generalizations about needs or developmental tasks are applied inflexibly, the teacher creates a situation similar to that in which he mistakenly assumes that all can profit from doing the same exercise in an arithmetic book. Children do not approach their tasks or work upon their needs in the same way. Some may not have had opportunity to use their powers for effective interaction in the outer world. Some may not have had the kinds of interpersonal relations needed at certain points in their development. In Allport's terms they have "unfinished business" as they approach new tasks which markedly influence their perceptions of the tasks and the help they need from their teachers.[9]

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[8] Frank, Laurence K. "Children's In-School and Out-of-School Teachers." *Educational Leadership* 12:294-96; February 1955.

[9] Ambrose, Edna and Alice Miel. *Children's Social Learning*. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a department of National Education Association, 1958. p. 61.

Early Elementary Childhood

When children enter kindergarten at five years of age, their growth rate is not as rapid as previously and for the next five to seven years, or until the pre-adolescent growth spurt, it will continue to be slow and steady. Girls at six years of age are usually as mature skeletally as the seven-year-old boy.

Physical development. The primary school child from five to eight years old is busy learning the use of his body, in trying out new physical skills and in perfecting others. He can be quiet for only a short time and seems constantly in motion. Running, jumping, skipping, climbing, moving to music, and playing ball are all means by which the primary child gains muscular control and strength. Although children in early childhood have little immunity to childhood diseases and have frequent accidents because of their daring and adventurousness, they are for the most part sturdy and healthy.

The child's large muscles are better developed and coordinated than his small muscles and six-year-olds work hard controlling arm and hand muscles in order to write. Manuscript writing is usually taught because it conforms more to letter formation found in printing and requires less neuromuscular skill than cursive writing. Small muscle dexterity and eye-hand coordination continue to develop during this period so that most eight-year-olds have sufficient dexterity for cursive writing, sawing, weaving, and other handiwork. The eyes of most six-year-olds have matured enough that they are ready for reading, but some children's eyes may not be ready before they are seven or eight, and the eyes of most of them are not ready for much close work before that age. Handedness is fairly well established by the time a child comes to school and should not be changed.

Social development. A child during the primary grades moves from being egocentric, playing by himself, concerned with what touches him, and wanting his own possessions to cooperating and playing in small groups. Acceptance in the peer group is usually based upon skill in an approved game. Although boys and girls play together, sex differences, often imposed by the culture, appear in their interests and in their games. Primary school children are already aware of different sex roles: boys attempt to be "manly" and not show tenderness or weakness; girls already know what is considered "lady-like" behavior. The gang becomes important to seven- and eight-year-olds and the opinion and approval of their pals is often more important than that of adults. Children love the rules, secret language, secrets, and rituals of the gang; and play for them, too, is often ritualized. Young children seem unaware of racial or class differences. The primary child grows in being an independent human being able to go to school alone, to make his own way with others, to run errands, to have opinions, to select his own friends, to be trusted. As he finds more support from the group, he becomes less dependent on adults.

Intellectual development. All children are curious about objects and want to learn: What is it? What is it for? How is it made? What does it do? What makes it tick? They want to see, touch, smell, and taste things. They want to construct, to make things, to take them apart. Their curiosity is almost insatiable. Children want specific answers to their questions and the interests of eight-year-olds have expanded to include more than their immediate environment.

Young children begin to use abstract terms but they have difficulty with abstractions. They need many concrete experiences to give meaning to what they read and hear. They begin to understand simple cause and effect relationships, to differentiate between fantasy and reality, to understand simple space and time concepts, to take responsibility, to distinguish between right and wrong, and to be aware of the feelings of others. Their interests are transitory and self-centered and their attention span is short.

Children in the Middle Grades

Children in the middle grades are usually freer from disease than at any other age. Their growth continues to be slow and steady; eyes have matured enough for close work; eye-hand coordination is good and they like to work with their hands, to build, do, and perform. They have boundless energy and courage, are easily over stimulated, and need adequate rest and relaxation.

Social development. An important characteristic of children in the middle grades is their reliance upon the gang. Boys and girls no longer play together and girls may not be allowed in the gangs which often have secret names and "hide outs" from girls as well as adults. The gangs may be of short duration and with changing membership. Girls also form clubs but are usually satisfied with fewer close friends. Both boys and girls turn more and more to their peers for ideas, for support, and for companionship and are less dependent upon adults for ideas and sanction. Yet adult approval and support are necessary, and children need to know that they are loved, understood, and accepted.

Both boys and girls like to collect a variety of things from match folders to stamps. Membership in such groups as Cub Scouts and Camp Fire Girls under adult leadership satisfy their need to be with their pals and at the same time give them goals to work for and help them improve their skills and deepen their interests. Children in the middle grades are more selective in their friendships, exclude some children from their gangs, are aware of the socioeconomic stratification in their community, and may use common stereotypes in assigning status to their classmates. Exclusion by boys may be due to the ineptness of the excluded in physical skills needed to excel in games and physical activity. A boy who does poorly is considered a "sissy." Other reasons for exclusion are often hard for both boys and girls to explain, other than "we don't like him" or "she's not one of us." Children usually reflect the opinions and prejudices of the adults with whom they live and grow—their parents, their friends' parents, and their neighbors.[10]

Children at this age have a fairly critical sense of justice, fair play, and right and wrong. There is an increase in their ability to assume responsibility and self-direction. They are perfectionists and want to do well, but become discouraged easily and dislike being nagged or pressured. They are usually cooperative, friendly, sympathetic, and responsive, and have a sense of humor.

Mental development. Children in the middle grades are still eager to learn and have insatiable curiosities. Their interests vary, yet are more stable than those of younger children. Children at this age collect facts about many things. They like to discuss problems and argue, and are eager to extend their horizons intellectually. Toward the close of this period, children show great interest in far-away countries and people of different times and places. Hero worship and a desire for adventure are characteristics of this age. They have a keen interest in science and want to know how things are made, how they work, and why. Rockets, missles, and outer space fascinate them as do airplanes, automobiles, and machinery generally.

Girls generally forge ahead in mental development and make better grades than boys, but individual differences among members of both sexes become more pronounced than earlier. Some children need more concrete, firsthand experiences than others; some forge ahead in their ability to use vicarious experiences, to do abstract thinking, to generalize, to solve problems. For most of them, abstract thinking is still rudimentary and they need many firsthand, concrete experiences from which to generalize. Their understanding of time and space concepts has increased but is still immature. They have more understanding of cause and effect relationships, can make comparisons, and can anticipate the consequences of various courses of action. Their vocabularies have greatly increased, and many of the concepts needed for daily living are formed during this period. But Havighurst says,

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[10] Trager, Helen G., and Marion Radke Yarrow. *They Learn What They Live.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952. p. 113-227.

> In middle childhood intellectual curiosity is channeled more in the areas of impersonal relations, things, processes, and exploration of the surrounding world than in the area of human relations. The latter are problems of immediate experience for the child, but not of intellectual curiosity. He is *feeling his way* in human relations while he is already *thinking his way* into the world of nature.[11]

Pre-adolescents

The elementary school ends at the sixth grade for some children but for others the seventh and eighth grades are considered part of the elementary school. During these years a majority of the girls and about one-third of the boys enter the "pubescent growth spurt." Individual differences increase and girls tend to be taller and heavier than boys. Girls are ready for heterosexual activities, while the majority of the boys want nothing to do with girls. Rapid growers are often restless, lazy, and fatigue easily. Emotional responses are intensified. These children are sensitive to criticism, often moody, and irritable, worry about the normalcy of their development, feel insecure, and use cover-up techniques to conceal their insecurity. Health habits are apt to be at their worst. Awkwardness, bad posture, and poor muscle coordination often accompany uneven and rapid growth. Many have trouble with acne, oily hair, and excessive perspiration; they eat incessantly; and have low resistance to minor diseases. Often they are self-conscious about body changes and have trouble adjusting and even accepting them.

Social development. About half of the children at this age are still little boys and girls with the interests and characteristics of middle grade children. The other half, the early adolescents, have reached sexual maturity and are experienceing many of the psychological and physical changes which accompany it. Gangs continue with group loyalty stronger than ever. Conformity to peer standards and culture is a dominant characteristic of the adolescent. They want desperately to "belong" and need the security that comes from being one of the gang.

Adolescents are ambivalent toward adults: sometimes defiant, uncooperative, and overly critical; at other times, compliant, cooperative, and eager for help. They are both conformists and individualists; their behavior is sometimes unpredictable; they are secretive and want their privacy and possessions respected; desire money of their own—either an allowance or money earned by running errands, babysitting, or paper routes; and object to parent's rules about late hours, study, manners, punctuality, and the like. The early adolescent is egocentric, the world revolves around him and his interests. His problems are so serious to him that he thinks his parents should understand him, accept him, and know what he wants even when he does not know himself. His behavior is often erratic and vaccilating. He goes to extremes in clothes, sometimes wearing sloppy, even dirty, clothes to school but being fastidious with his appearance if he has a date. One day his behavior is childish, the next day mature. His bizarre behavior is often a cover-up for his insecurity; he continually experiments wtih social behavior and often uses attention-getting devices with various degrees of success.

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[11] Havighurst, Robert J. *Human Development and Education*. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1953. p. 82.

Mental development. Early adolescents are concerned with a realistic picture of the world. School studies, movies, television, and other experiences have expanded their world and their interests. Their primary interest, however, is themselves—who they are, their place in the school, the community, and the world. They strive to establish themselves in the order of things and events, to understand themselves and their behavior, to reconcile events or happenings with idealistic teachings and their concept of right and wrong. Their interests are often unstable and boy's and girl's reading, recreational, and intellectual interests differ markedly. Early adolescents are restless and some have difficulty concentrating for long periods of time; their interest span is relatively short. They tend to procrastinate in starting tasks and have difficulty finishing them. There is marked discrepancy between their intentions and their deeds.

Early adolescents are increasingly able to work independently and in small groups. Their ability to solve problems, to generalize, to find information, to understand and use graphic materials, and to handle abstract concepts has greatly expanded. They are more facile in communicating their ideas and opinions. They love to argue, to question authority, to demand proof, but they do not like to listen. They have increased understanding of time and space concepts, but these take time to develop and are still not fully developed. They like to plan and can project plans for several weeks; they can take responsibility and can be self-directing but need to be held to commitments. Because of their own insecurity and confused feelings about themselves, early adolescents need an orderly, stable environment in which to grow and learn.

DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS

Havighurst says that childhood, the period from six to twelve, is characterized by three great outward pushes: "the thrust of the child out of the home and into the peer group, the physical thrust into the world of games and work requiring neuromuscular skills, and the mental thrust into the world of adult concepts, logic, symbolism, and communication."[12] In addition all children are engaged with developmental tasks which are defined as tasks "which arise at or about a certain period in the life of an individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by the society and difficulty with later tasks."[13] The developmental tasks which all elementary school children must achieve grow out of the three thrusts of growth in the child.

1. Learning physical skills necessary for ordinary games.
2. Building wholesome attitudes toward oneself as a growing organism.
3. Learning to get along with age-mates.
4. Learning an appropriate masculine and feminine social role.
5. Developing fundamental skills in reading, writing, and calculating.
6. Developing concepts necessary for everyday living.
7. Developing conscience, morality, and a scale of values.
8. Achieving personal independence.
9. Developing attitudes toward social groups and institutions.[14]

Developmental tasks are set by the pressures and expectancies of the culture and by the changes which take place in the individual as a result of maturation. The social pressures are exerted by parents, social institutions, and the play groups in the process of socialization so that the child will be accepted and approved. Developmental tasks have certain characteristics in that all individuals in a culture must achieve a task at the time when it is appropriate or they are not likely to achieve the tasks appropriate for the next level of development. Some tasks must be achieved at special times; others, like "achieving an appropriate dependence-interdependence pattern," are recurrent in different form at each stage of development. Tasks, too, are interrelated, and failure to achieve one may interfere with the learning of another; for example, failure to achieve a "wholesome attitude toward oneself" may interfere with the development of fundamental skills.

This interrelatedness is particularly apparent in the developmental tasks of adolescents which are principally emotional and social, not intellectual.

1. Achieving new and more mature relations with agemates of both sexes.
2. Achieving a masculine and feminine social role.
3. Accepting one's physique and using the body effectively.
4. Achieving emotional independence of parents and other adults.
5. Achieving assurance of economic independence.
6. Selecting and preparing for an occupation.

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[12] Havighurst, Robert J. *Developmental Tasks and Education*. New York: Longman's, Green and Company, 1952. p. 15.

[13] *Ibid.*, p. 2.

[14] *Ibid.*, p. 15-28.

7. Preparing for marriage and family life.
8. Developing intellectual skills and concepts necessary for civic competence.
9. Desiring and achieving socially responsible behavior.
10. Acquiring a set of values and an ethical system as a guide to behavior.[15]

Healthy Personality Development and Social Attitudes

Since children learn what they live, they can learn democratic values only by living democratically. To help individuals learn to live democratically in today's world, schools must pay attention to the quality of their relationships with others and to the development of healthy personalities. The amount of factual knowledge they have about the history of the world or even of the cultural heritage of their own nation will be of little importance if they have little respect for themselves or for the dignity and worth of others, little or no concern for the welfare of others, or courage and faith that common problems can be solved by free men working cooperatively to achieve common goals.

The growing child is confronted with a number of basic problems or conflicts which must be resolved favorably for him to develop a healthy personality. Erickson in his "Eight Stages of Man" presents the conflicts which confront each individual and the period in his life when they are most dominant. The five which confront children are:

1. Trust–mistrust	infancy
2. Autonomy–shame or doubt	preschool
3. Initiative–guilt	early childhood
4. Industry–inferiority	later childhood
5. Identity–role diffusion	early adolescence[16]

No one conflict is completely resolved at any stage, but enough progress should be made so that the child can move on to the next developmental stage. When the child has incorporated the positive aspect of the conflict into his personality, he is ready for future development and future conflicts. This does not mean that he will not have mistrust, doubt, and feelings of shame in the future, but these should be continually weaker than trust and autonomy.

Trust Versus Mistrust

How a person feels about himself depends a great deal on the love and security which surrounded him in infancy. Trust depends on how the baby feels about those who feed him and care for him, especially the mother and the quality of her relationship to him. He gradually learns too to trust his own body to do some of the things he wants to do and his own ability to crawl, to hold on, to stand, to walk, and to communicate. Failure to develop trust in oneself and others hinders personality development. Without it an individual has no confidence in himself and no sense of responsibility to others. Children who have been rejected, lack this feeling of trust. They continually need eassurance from teachers and consistency in what is expected of them so that they learn to trust themselves, their abilities, and their contributions.

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[15] *Ibid.*, p. 33-71.

[16] Erikson, Erik H. *Childhood and Society*. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, Inc., 1950. p. 219-34. For educational implications see Haan, Aubrey. *Elementary School Curriculum: Theory and Research*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1961. p. 31-39; and Ambrose and Miel, *op. cit.*, p. 17-22.

Autonomy Versus Shame and Doubt

During the two's, three's, and four's the pre-school child is striving to prove that he is an individual and that he can do things for himself, and that he can make choices. He needs encouragement and assurance from adults and guidance in recognizing what he can and cannot do. If adults guide him in his desire to be independent, " a separate self," he grows; if they frustrate him and refuse to let him do the things he can, he feels shame and doubt as to his ability. Parents who use shame to control a child, face increased difficulties later. Since little children are unable to discriminate among what they can and cannot do, they need wise direction from understanding adults who give them approval and encouragement to try new things and make choices on their own, yet restrain children with firmness when they desire to do things beyond their capacity or overstep bounds.

Initiative Versus Guilt

The primary school child is eager to try out his newly acquired physical skills and he has also entered a world full of new ideas, activities, and tools with which he can experiment. He is eager to learn and to express himself with finger paint, crayon, or clay. He makes pictures, models, and, with the aid of the teacher, he writes chart stories about his experiences. He moves his body to music to express his mood and enters spontaneously into the roles of other people as he becomes a pilot, the milkman, a chauffeur, or a father. Through play, the child learns about his world, about social institutions, about tools and processes, and about the people who make up the adult world. To be a pilot, he must act like a pilot and know what a pilot does. As part of his school experience, he also is learning to get along with other children as they engage in all the engrossing and exciting activities of kindergarten and primary school.

As the child initiates new activities and carries them out successfully, he develops a good feeling about himself. If too many times he fails, or if he is made to feel ashamed because he cannot read as well as a neighbor's child or does not run as fast, then be loses confidence, feels guilty and ashamed for not doing better.

If the child has built autonomy upon a firm foundation of trust, he now can face the fact that love can be conditioned as well as unconditioned, and that some times he is less acceptable and less worthy of love than at others. In a child with this basic security, shame and guilt do not follow if he is not "best." Without the basic security or trust, an over reliance upon external approval for a sense of worth may lead the child to attempt to achieve for external awards rather than for the joy of trying something and doing it.

Industry Versus Inferiority

Trust, autonomy, and initiative prepare the child for the next conflict which becomes important in the middle grades. Now he learns to work, to persevere, to produce, to take pleasure in seeing a job through to completion. The child at this age is more realistic than imaginative. Children want to succeed and the problem for the school is how to help all children to succeed in spite of differences in native ability and in emotional development.

During this period the child turns to his peers for support and for security. Organized games with definite rules give him a sense of stability and a chance to cooperate with a group. He does not have to stand alone and compete alone against others. Through group games, his feelings of deficiency and anxiety are conquered.

As the child has more independence, he has more freedom to make decisions. If he has always been told what and how to do things or if adults have not let him try new things, he may have no basis on which to make choices now. Children who have been too controlled and too hemmed in by adult authority, often like to control and order others around. The school's task is to help the child see that the talents of all are needed and that if he cannot compete in one field, he may succeed and make a valuable contribution through another. "His danger, at this stage," Erickson says,

> lies in a sense of inadequacy and inferiority. If he despairs of his tools and skills or of his status among his tool partners, his ego boundary suffers, and he abandons hope for the ability to identify early with others who apply themselves to the same general section of the tool world. . . . It is at this point that wider society becomes significant in its ways of admitting the child to an understanding of meaningful roles

> in its total economy. Many a child's development is disrupted when family life may not have prepared him for school life, or when school life may fail to sustain the promises of earlier stages.[17]

Identity Versus Role Diffusion

As children move into adolescence they are concerned with the task of identity, of trying to understand themselves and their role in society. Because of the ambivalent feelings young adolescents have about themselves and their relations with others the resolution of this conflict is difficult. They are concerned with how they appear to others as compared with what they think they really are. Their new feelings and anxiety about themselves cause them to doubt their previous self-conception. They seek identity through group conformity, through hero worship, through crushes on adolescent idols and heroes, and through career decisions. "The danger at this stage is role diffusion" as the adolescent attempts to identify his role in society. This is particularly difficult for children of minority groups who find themselves excluded from many roles open to members of majority groups and whose earlier security has not been sufficient as a basis for resolving this conflict satisfactorily. Almy believes that a child who has established trust, autonomy, initiative, and industry does not have too much difficulty in establishing identity. Much depends upon how he has learned to accept himself, his talents and limitations, to distinguish between what he can and cannot do, and the kinds of interpersonal relations he has.

> If, as he grows, he is able to keep in touch with his emotions, to know that he is angry and at whom, that he is afraid and of what, that he feels warmly and positively, then he is at adolescence in a better position to know his changing self and to make decisions that are right for it.[18]

SELF-PERCEPTION AND SOCIAL LEARNINGS

Recent research has documented the concept that how children feel about themselves greatly influences how and what they learn. The social studies teacher is primarily concerned with the kinds of learning Ambrose and Miel call social learnings. These, they define, as "those learnings which help an individual maintain continuity between himself with his own developing habits of thinking, feeling, acting and his own society, with whatever framework is necessary for its survival."[19] The school has the responsibility of helping children acquire the values, ideals, and sensitivities needed for living in a democratic society. "None of the talk about democracy," they say, "none of the emphasis upon the demanding role of the school are more than empty words unless and until we can learn how to provide an environment wherein each uniquely different child can find the relationships, materials, help and encouragement needed to take the next steps forward in his growth."[20]

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[17] Erickson, *op. cit.*, p. 227.

[18] Almy, Millie. *Child Development*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1955. p. 457.

[19] Ambrose and Miel, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

Children who come to school hostile, rejected, and unloved and who see themselves as unworthy of love and respect feel inadequate to perform the tasks expected of them. They are too defeated by their own self-perception to learn. Many children who are considered underachievers or even non-learners are quite capable once they are freed of their anxieties, and their worries about their own inadequacies and worth.

To change a negative self-concept to a positive one, is not easy. It takes time, patience, and understanding on the part of teachers and counselors. Defeated children need constant reassurance that they are worthy, that they can succeed, that what they do is good, that people do care about them. In a supportive atmosphere, even hostile children can build a good feeling about themselves and others and can develop the trust, autonomy, initiative, and sense of achievement needed for a healthy personality.

ACTION PRINCIPLES FOR SOCIAL STUDIES[21]

From recent research on the growth and development of children may be drawn guidelines for the grade placement of social studies units and of activities within the units. These can be summarized as follows:

1. The immediate environment both in school and out should be viewed as one of the sources of content and experience for the social studies.

2. Content for children in primary grades should emphasize things and people in close proximity to the children in time and space. Units should be closely related to the everyday life of the child.

3. Social studies units in the first grades should provide for much physical activity, a variety of experiences, and many centers of interest because of the short attention span of children, their spontaneous interests, and the tendency of young children to prefer individual, parallel, and small group play. Eight-year-olds are ready for larger group activities and units which go beyond their immediate environment.

4. The concepts and generalizations expected of primary children should be correlated with out-of-school experiences so that they understand the relationship between symbols or words and actual things. Con-

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[20] *Ibid.*, p. 24.

[21] Hanna, Potter, and Hagaman, *op. cit.*, p. 45, 48.

cepts outside of their experience are difficult for them to understand.

5. The primary child's interests are egocentric and he lacks time perspective so that he has little concern with what happened before him.

6. Intermediate grade children have active curiosities and a desire for facts of all kinds. Their curiosity about people and other times, their love of adventure and travel, their concern about how and why things are done as they are, and their hero worship imply that these children would get much satisfaction from units focused on life in other countries and in earlier periods of our own history as well as from units which emphasize industrial processes and natural phenomena.

7. The development of spatial concepts of time by intermediate grade children and their difficulty in understanding historical perspective suggest that social studies units be cultural rather than chronological in nature and that they emphasize how people have adjusted to and adapted their environment to meet their needs.

8. The interest in mechanics, science, and natural phenomena on the part of the intermediate grade child and the preadolescent suggests that social studies units dealing with man's technical control over his environment and his use of natural resources would be of value for intermediate and upper grade children.

9. Preadolescents' interests are again egocentric and they are primarily concerned with themselves and with their immediate environment. Units in the upper grades should help children understand themselves, adjust to their immediate physical and social environment, and to establish satisfactory personal relationships.

10. The early adolescent needs opportunity to experiment socially, to understand people who differ, and to learn how to get along with others. Research reveals that prejudice exists in even younger children. Units in the intermediate and upper grades should help children understand likenesses and differences in people and the desirableness of cultural plurality in American life and the world community.

11. The early adolescent needs to learn about great personages in order to satisfy his inclination toward "hero worship," to understand his cultural heritage, and to solve problems with which he can identify himself.

12. Units in the intermediate and upper grades should provide many opportunities for firsthand as well as vicarious experiences.

13. Children need many opportunities in all units and at all grade levels to satisfy their basic drives to be active, to dramatize, to construct and manipulate, to satisfy curiosity, to communicate; as well as to satisfy their ego-integrative needs. Through dramatic play they learn

about the world, the work and feelings of people, and to empathize with them; through working with one child, a small group of children or the entire class, children learn to cooperate, to respect each other, to plan together, to consider various proposals, and achieve common goals.

14. Most important of all, social studies in the elementary school should help children acquire the ethical values and social learnings needed by democratic citizens. These include: respect and confidence in oneself as a worthy person and in one's rights and feelings; respect and trust of others and their rights and feelings; concern for the welfare of others; common loyalties; recognition and appreciation of similarities and differences; integration of cultural differences to enrich life for all; respect for uniqueness, and a good feeling about oneself and others.[22]

The role of the school and of social studies particularly is one of fostering in children "the development of healthy personalities and the intellectual and emotional qualities which enable them to act in accordance with democratic values and the demands placed upon citizens of a democracy."[23]

Section Four: Problem Solving, Learning, and Classroom Decisions

Leo W. O'Neill, Jr.

In this section of the Yearbook an assessment is made of the values of problem solving as a design for learning activities. A description of the nature of problem solving is given first; this is followed by a statement of generalizations regarding learning which are currently accepted by educational authorities. The various aspects of problem solving are then appraised in terms of learning theory and their effectiveness in facilitating the making of better classroom decisions.

The Process of Problem Solving

At this time writing introductory remarks about problem solving to be read by teachers of social studies bears a certain resemblance to the description of sea water for the benefit of a school of mackerel. For many years problem solving has been stoutly endorsed and regularly recommended, enjoying a position somewhat analogous to virtue. We customarily assume that, unlike virtue, problem solving is both clearly understood and widely practiced.

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[22] Ambrose and Miel, *op. cit.*, p. 7.

[23] *Ibid.*, p. 103.

Unfortunately, problem solving means different things to different people. It may be thought of as the behavior of anyone who is confronted with an unavoidable decision or the type of research activity used by social scientists or even an individual's efforts to bring about an improvement in his popularity index. A broader view of problem solving reduces the emphasis on "problem" and treats the process as one specific delineation of "thinking." Since each individual's perception includes these and other elements in varying concentrations, it might well be preferable to speak of the "many processes known as problem solving." (See Chapter VI for a description of problem solving by other writers.)

Along with these variations in the concept of problem solving are variations in classroom practices. For example, problem solving includes such activities as the answering of questions formulated by the teacher, the investigation of what was in the distant or recent past, the making of judgments about what ought to be in the present, and the devising of the means of sharing what has been learned with other children or with parents. One or more of these practices may accurately reflect a school's definition of problem solving in the social studies.

The fact that these differences exist makes it essential that we start with a definition of the problem solving process. Let us start with the customary practice of describing problem solving in terms of a series of steps. The following are included in lists which vary in number of items but not in nature of activities: identifying the problem, formulating the hypothesis (or hypotheses), obtaining relevant data, testing the hypothesis by relating it to the data, stating the appropriate generalization or solution, and, whenever possible, testing the generalization by adopting the action it suggests or seeking additional facts which support it. This listing does not represent the sequential order of these activities since the solver may modify the original problem or hypothesis as the data are collected, thus turning back to an earlier step after having worked on a later one.

The problems to be solved are social, and the process is not highly objective, not detached from values and attitudes. If we consider a particular issue, it is apparent that groups of people whose values differ will view the issue in different ways. This acceptance of variations in values and attitudes constitutes a strength, not a weakness, of the process of problem solving for people in this country. As a nation we insist that the individual should have the right to hold values which may differ from his neighbor's, provided that his actions are not in conflict with the law of the land.

The category of "social" problems is not intended to include those which are essentially personal in nature. We are here concerned with problem solving in the classroom of the elementary school, not the privacy of a living room or a psychologist's office. The child is required to attend the school and to participate in the activity of the classroom. While this classroom activity may involve the solving of problems of human relationship, it should not require his opening the doors beyond which lie his personal affairs. He may solve problems as they are here defined without any unwarranted invasion of his privacy.

The possibility of the establishment of one problem raises a question concerning the source of the problem. There is general agreement that the problem itself must be identified by the solver and may not be imposed by another person or agency. Other people may and do attempt to bring an individual to identify the problem which they want him to solve—advertisers spend effort freely to influence us to accept both a given problem and their solution. Whatever the effectiveness of external influences, only the solver will identify the problem, a fortunate protection against pressure groups active in contemporary society.

This total process requires activity on the part of the solver. He must identify the problem, and he must find and apply the facts relevant to the problem. The process itself does not deny his seeking assistance at some point, but neither does it provide for the restricting of his activity to one phase only. There is no suggestion that the thinking, the weighing, the relating, and the making of a defensible decision belong to a second party.

Reduced to minimum essentials, this description of problem solving may be recast in other terms. Drawing on his background and the present environment, the individual identifies an important issue, some aspect of which disturbs him or attracts his attention. The issue itself is concerned to some significant degree with human behavior. He identifies facts or accepts principles which are relevant to the issue, relates these findings to the issue, and arrives at a conclusion which may suggest a course of action to be taken or a principle to be accepted. Reason and emotion have contributed to the systematic resolution of an issue which the individual faced.

Thus defined, this process might vary from the paradigm of the several steps. The process might more closely resemble deductive than inductive thinking, starting with the acceptance of a given principle or generalization. The solver's main task might then be the making of a decision about a specific action which should be in agreement with the principle. For example, if second graders accept the principle that children should help the school's custodian, their problem may require a decision about the relative merits of several possible actions which they could take.

There are many other processes which meet the requirements of a broad view of problem solving. The individual may make a decision by identifying the various possible courses of action, the probable consequences of each, and the one action which has the most desirable consequences. He may formulate a generalization, describe the events or facts which would be found if the generalization were sound, and then test the generalization by looking for these supporting data. This is similar to the procedure which resulted in the discovery of the planet Neptune, the fact which was suggested by a theoretical explanation for the behavior of the planet Uranus. Each of these variations constitutes the adaptation of a basic procedure to the situation which the solver is facing.

In these examples the term "individual" is used intentionally, and neither "group" nor "consensus" appears. The process as described requires thought, and only individuals can think. It is possible that the thinking individual is a member of a functioning group and that other members of the group are also thinking. It is also possible that these individuals will exchange their thoughts, coordinate their activities, or be required to reach agreement on one course of action for the group. These possibilities are dependent on existing social structure, but they are not prerequisite to problem solving itself.

If someone with Lincoln's penchant for brevity would summarize problem solving, he might possibly use the word, "Think." If asked to be more specific, he might add a few more words: "Relate events; formulate and project generalizations."

Optimum Conditions for Learning

Learning is a difficult concept to discuss. In an introductory chapter of a book on the subject, Hilgard stated, "It is, in fact, extremely difficult to write an entirely satisfactory verbal definition."[24] The concept describes a wide range of events: the ability to arrange in correct order the letters in the word "believe," the identification of the Spanish word *mesa* with the object previously known as table, the sudden insight into the relationship between loans made to us by France during the War of the American Revolution and the budget deficit of Louis XVI in 1787, and the gradual realization that a person's behavior is strongly influenced by his perception of himself and of the situation in which he is acting. It is small wonder that definition presents a difficult task.

For our purposes we may describe learning as the adoption by the individual of a changed behavior when the behaviors which he knew previously do not serve him adequately in a new situation or seem to be less satisfactory than a newly discovered behavior. This view of learning includes many behaviors ranging from the assembly of letters in a word which external authority pronounces "correct" to the growing insight into human beings which offers a better explanation of their actions than the principle of unpredictability. It is intended to accept the judgment of the culture as an external criterion without excluding the decision-making role of the learner regarding the adequacy of his knowledge. The validity and utility of this internal criterion were suggested long ago by the truism, "I learned my lesson."

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[24] Hilgard, Ernest R. *Theories of Learning.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1948. p. 4.

Learning is an active process which requires reactions of the individual to his environment. His reactions serve a dual function by enabling him both to assess the adequacy of his previously learned behaviors or knowledge and to modify those behaviors in the direction of greater adequacy. This is what happens to the boy who leaves father's careful tutelage to play baseball with boys who do not require the pitcher to try to hit the bat with the pitched ball. When the same boy enters college with the conviction that he has "had" history, "the history professor soon provides the environment which facilitates the student's assessment and modification of his behavior."

These two examples illustrate the possible role of the environment, but there is no assurance that the environment is always adequate or that the individual reacts in such a way that learning takes place. In the example of the small boy's experience with baseball, it is possible that the environment will enable him to assess his skill and at the same time do little to help him develop the needed skills or other behaviors unless he can do so by watching from the sidelines or is able to stand intensive hazing. It is not necessary to make a similar application to the case of the college freshman in the history course.

There are certain conditions which substantially affect the quality of the individual's reaction to the learning situation. These have been discussed at length by recognized authorities on the teaching of social studies. Since the major task of this section is the assessment of problem solving and not the critical discussion of learning theory, it was decided to summarize without detailed evidence or argument several criteria, taken from widely used textbooks on the teaching of social studies in the elementary school.[25] These criteria will then be used for the assessment of problem solving in the concluding section of this chapter.

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[25] Wesley, Edgar B., and Mary A. Adams. *Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Schools.* Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1952. p. 93-103. Michaelis, John U. *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956. p. 90-106. Hanna, Lavone A., Gladys L. Potter, and Neva Hagaman. *Unit Teaching in the Elementary School.* New York: Rinehart and Co., 1955. p. 48-54.

Interest or involvement or commitment is an important factor in the learning situation. These terms are not intended to be synonymous with passing fancy or momentary curiosity. Rather, they imply a substantial degree of care or concern which usually requires previous acquaintance with the topic and which involves the individual's value structure. Each of us knows enough about a vast range of topics to become interested in every one of them. The fact that each is interested in a limited number indicates that some sort of value judgment has been made, establishing some topics as important and thus as items of interest. When the individual is interested in that which is to be learned, his learning experiences will be more effective.

A second important factor, closely related to the first, is the purpose or goal of the learner. If we assume that every person has purposes, the central issue becomes the relationship of one's purposes to the learning situation itself. A group of children studying the relationship between life in their state and its physical features may include one child whose main purpose is identifying the occupations of the people in his state, another whose main purpose is completing enough work to merit praise from the teacher, and a third who is merely existing and conserving energy until baseball practice starts at four o'clock. The effectiveness of the learning activity will be influenced by the degree to which the learner's purpose or goal is related to the intended purpose of the activity. The effectiveness also will be increased as the learner realizes the progress he is making toward achieving his goal.

A third factor may be called the developmental appropriateness of the learning activity. This is multidimensional in nature, including such elements as the relative difficulty of the proposed change in the learner's behavior, his ability to relate the new experience to previous experiences, and the degree to which he understands what he is now able to say or do. The best learning activity is that which is best suited to the development level of the child, the difficulty level of the content of the experience being appropriate to the child's achievement level.

Let us go back to the boy who identified baseball with the throw-and-catch kind of activity in his backyard. Suppose that, thus prepared, he ventured off to play baseball with a group of boys whose developmental level was much higher than his. When he was given a strange thing called a bat and told to hit the ball, he would probably fail completely. If he did manage to hit the ball, he probably wouldn't start running in time or in the right direction. While at field, he might stop the ball which bounced in his direction, but he wouldn't know what to do with it. If this game is a learning situation, it is evident that the activity was poorly suited to his existing knowledge and skill, that confusion would be the dominant note in his reactions. A more appropriate developmental sequence would include several steps between his throw-and-catch level and the advanced level of a baseball game, complete with teams of players, batting, running bases, etc.

A final factor to be used in the assessment of problem solving is the richness or fullness of the learning environment. This environment includes both materials and the learner's opportunity to use them. One textbook with only thirty pages on Africa or three texts with comparable limitations would constitute a lean environment of facts to be used in the development of sound concepts and generalizations about the aspirations and achievements of the people living on that great land mass. A paragraph or two describing the art of music of a culture, the products of a nation or the physical features of one-third of a continent constitute a poor substitute for scores of relevant facts provided by verbal description, pictures, maps, records, realia, and other resources. The inadequacy of materials is regrettable in those schools which have access to no others, particularly when the schools are providing an invaluable service for the people of a wealthy nation.

The coexistence of learners and materials does not necessarily constitute a rich environment. Materials in a library, displays in a museum, and the person recently returned from a tour of Africa may become part of the learning environment only when they are used for instructional purposes, when they are related to the issue being explored by the children. It is not here suggested that teachers are remiss in bringing accessible materials into the environment because there certainly is no evidence to support this and many other broad generalizations made concerning pedagogical practices. The intent was to define more specifically the concept of a rich environment for learning, including in the concept both existence and utilization of the raw materials of experience.

THE ASSESSMENT OF PROBLEM SOLVING

The assessment of problem solving as a design for learning is made from two distinct frames of reference. The first of these is learning theory; a satisfactory design would be one which agrees substantially with accepted principles of learning. The second frame of reference is the classroom; a satisfactory design would help the teacher make sound, consistent decisions regarding children's activities.

It will be necessary in the following pages to refer to certain features of the process of problem solving. The terminology used to describe the features will be taken from the familiar construct of the "steps" in problem solving. This selection was adopted in order to facilitate communication and does not constitute a rejection of the other variations of the process. Our discussion would be extremely tedious if each variation were described and examined in the light of each criterion identified. This type of assessment might be used equally well with any acceptable variation of problem solving.

Learning and Problem Solving

Two hypothetical problems will be used to make the discussion more explicit: "What can we do to improve living in our neighborhood?" and "How fairly did the early settlers of our country treat the Indians?"

The first criterion stated that learning will be more effective when the individual is interested in that which is to be learned. Let us assume that the teacher wanted the children to become well acquainted with the relationship between colonists and Indians during the period from 1607 to 1700. The fact that one or several children formulated a relevant problem indicates his or their interest in this topic. The lack of predetermined, correct solution to this problem should tend to maintain interest or involvement beyond the first few days. This, of course, assumes that the problem was formulated by the children, not "given to" them.

Interest will also be maintained when there is the possibility that action will be taken which is suggested by the solution. The children who are looking for ways to improve living in their neighborhood may well expect that they will be able to take the action necessary to effect at least one of the improvements. While they are working on this problem, they may be achieving the goals established for the unit which might include an increased insight into interdependence, the nature of services provided for members of a community, and the benefits of cooperative activity.

The formulation of the problem by the solver indicates his interest in that which is to be learned, and the process thus meets the first criterion of learning. The maintenance of this initial interest is fostered by two other features of problem solving, the controversial nature of the issue and the possibility of taking action suggested by the solution.

The second criterion is concerned with the purpose of the learner and his awareness of the progress he is making toward attaining his goal. The process of problem solving satisfies this criterion particularly well. The problem itself constitutes a combined intellectual and emotional concern with the issue. The gathering of data is directly related to the learner's purpose if he has developed or is developing the ability to identify the relevance of available data to the issue at hand. The awareness of progress is evident as the individual accumulates the facts needed and identifies the amount and nature of additional information required for an adequate solution to the problem.

Either of the hypothetical problems will illustrate the influence of the learner's purpose and progress. The child who is investigating the interaction of colonists and Indians has a definite goal which requires his obtaining and using a certain amount of information. As he becomes acquainted with a number of recorded incidents, he is able to estimate his progress in the gathering of data. He must also decide the number of facts or incidents which are required, not merely to satisfy the teacher's demands, but rather to provide a sound basis for a generalization regarding the colonist-Indian relationship. Whether or not the teacher or children in the room help him see the value of looking beyond the familiar experiences of Squanto and Pocahontas, the structure of problem solving facilitates the learner's appraisal of progress toward achievement of his main purpose.

The third criterion was the developmental appropriateness of the learning activity. Since the problem itself is formulated with guidance from the teacher, it is probable that it will be suited to his level of understanding. If the initial problem includes concepts and generalizations which are too difficult for the solver, he may need help in making modifications which bring the problem within the range of his ability. Thus, "How do we cooperate with other communities in meeting our needs?" may be revised to resemble more closely our sample problem, "What can we do to improve living in our neighborhood?"

The problem solving structure increases the probability that the learner will identify during his gathering of data those facts which he does not understand and exclude these inappropriate items from the learning activity. Let us suppose that a child is unable to comprehend the recommendation that measures be taken in a community to reduce the exposure of people to radioactive fall-out following explosion of an atomic device. Since he can see no relationship between this recommendation and his problem, he will not use the recommendaton. This last statement is based on the assumption that his goal is something other than the completion of a neatly written report on the topic suggested by the problem, due on the teacher's desk by Friday morning.

Developmental appropriateness of any activity cannot be guaranteed by the adoption of any learning structure. Urban children who are actively seeking information about farming children may well interpret a verbal description of the loading of cattle onto a truck in the frame of reference of the loading of a dump truck by a power shovel and thus comprehend poorly that which they are reading. However, the emphases in problem solving on the learner's identification of an issue and on the relating of facts to that issue constitute influences which favor the suitability of the activity for the learner.

The last criterion was the richness of the learning environment. Problem solving does not insure the availability of a wealth of resource materials any more than the holding of a free election insures a well-informed electorate. However, problem solving encourages or places a premium on the use of many sources of information, just as the right to make a choice encourages the voter to become better acquainted with the alternatives. Other things being equal, the quality of problem solving will be improved by the solver's use of a more ample sample of relevant facts.

The hypothetical problem concerned with treatment of Indians by early settlers of this country may be used to illustrate the importance of resources in problem solving. A textbook provides no more than an introduction to the problem. Such facts and ideas as the following might be needed: enough instances of treatment of Indians by colonists that a descriptive generalization may be made; fact-based generalizations on treatment of Indians in the areas of the Americas in which Spanish and French settled, and appraisal of the prevalent ethics of the settlers; and consideration of the alternatives of making a value judgment on the basis of the ethics and perceptions of that day or of contemporary society. Obviously, a collection of copies of six different textbooks at a given grade level would not constitute resources adequate for this kind of investigation.

Another asset in the environment is the variety of learning activities suggested or encouraged by the teacher. Children are motivated to use many sources of information if they are expected to do more with the information than copy it onto the pages of a scrapbook, prepare a written report which will be evaluated largely on the basis of length and neatness, or fill in blank spaces on a "ditto" with the correct names and dates. Some schools may lack resources which permit the study in depth of issues identified by the children or may so restrict the range of activities that superficial study is encouraged. Whatever the practice followed, problem solving itself encourages the use of a wide range of different sources of information and the selection from a variety of learning activities those which are best suited to the problem and the solver.

In summary, the process of problem solving as described seems to meet the four criteria derived from learning theory. The qualifying phrase "as described" is necessary because the generalization may not be applied to every conceivable variant of the process. The agreement of process and criteria might suggest that criteria were selected which would support problem solving. The four conditions which affect the quality of learning were not deliberately selected for this purpose, but it is quite possible that selection was influenced by an unavoidable predisposition in favor of problem solving. Any such influence of bias may be minimized by the reader's conducting his own assessment, using principles of learning stated by the authors cited or by other authorities.

Classroom Decisions and Problem Solving

The second assessment of problem solving should be based on the degree to which it provides guidance in the making of decisions about specific learning activities. Teachers have raised questions about grouping of children for work in social studies, the use of a textbook, the value of field trips, the desirability of certain types of activities, and other matters. The utility of problem solving as a design for learning activities will now be examined by applying it to several questions of this sort. It is important to recognize that the process *does not determine* the decision which the teacher will make. Its function is advisory only, i.e., if a given decision were to be based on problem solving and not on school policy or an individual child's needs at a given time, this would be the practice suggested. The weighing of other pertinent factors would still be done by the teacher.

Before examining the practice of grouping children for their work in social studies, we must make one basic assumption which is largely pedagogical in nature. The assumption is this: the grouping of children within the classroom for instruction enables the teacher to provide a greater amount of guidance and thus is a desirable practice. By reviewing the day's plans and/or progress with five groups instead of thirty individuals, the teacher has saved substantial time which may be used in providing needed assistance to individuals working on planned tasks.

Several specific but related questions are raised about grouping for work in social studies. When should small groups be established? Should this be done during the first week? The process of problem solving does not specify that children be grouped on the first day of work on a unit or on any other given day. Rather, it suggests the establishment of small groups when there is functional differentiation of tasks. A working group would be established when some children have formulated a problem which provides a common task. If all children want to solve the same problem, working groups may be established on the basis of several hypotheses suggested. Children also may be grouped when they have identified two or more activities by which solutions or generalizations may be used or tested.

This suggests a basis for decisions about the number, membership, and duration of working groups. There may be as many groups as there are problems, hypotheses or solution-testing activities. The teacher may decide that the group which is concerned about one problem is too large to work effectively, and dividing this into two groups is the kind of action which problem solving itself neither suggests nor rejects. Whatever the number of groups, each group would include those children who identified or selected the problem, hypothesis, or activity. This group will work together until the task is completed; thus, it is possible that there would be two or more group structures during the time allowed for one unit.

Two examples may clarify the relationship between grouping and problems or hypotheses. After becoming acquainted with major aspects of the topic of life in colonial times, some fifth graders may express concern about the treatment of Indians by settlers. Others may be interested in a comparison of living conditions in 1700 and the 1960's, particularly in basic similarities and differences. Since these and additonal problems would help children develop insight into colonial times, the children may be grouped for work on these problems. However, if all children in our hypothetical second grade want to identify ways of improving living in their neighborhood, grouping could not be done on the basis of different problems.

If several problems were suggested, the children might be grouped so that each could work on the problem he preferred, e.g., a clean-up campaign, planting flowers, or reducing the incidence of conflict with peers. Whether the groups were formed on the basis of problems or hypotheses, the group structure would be used until the task was completed.

Should children use a textbook or a variety of reading materials for their work in social studies? The process of problem solving places emphasis on two functions of reading materials. The formulation of a problem requires substantial acquaintance with the topic at hand, and in solving the problem children should use a substantial amount of relavant information. The value of any book, periodical, pamphlet, or other reference material must be judged on the basis of its serving one of these main functions. In general, it is extremely unlikely that one book would adequately serve these two functions. The typical textbook is intended to provide more scope than depth and frequently provides the broad acquaintance which is required for problem formulation. Reading materials which explore a topic in depth are more useful for the subsequent fact-finding activity. Problem solving provides this kind of guidance in the use of reading materials: the important consideration regarding the appropriateness of reading materials is the identification of the kind of information needed by children at a given time. No reference material is useful or useless in itself.

Reading is one of several activities used to obtain information, and the principle which applies to it may be used for other activities. For example, a field trip to the airport or a local museum is valuable only to the extent that it provides experiential background information needed for a given problem or for testing a solution. The purpose of the field trip also should influence such decisions as the appropriate time and the organization of the children in one big group or several smaller groups.

Another category of activities includes those which enable or require children to do something with what they have learned or, in problem solving language, to test proposed solutions or to put information to use. Scores of specific questions are raised about the value of painting a mural, listing the products of Hawaii, dramatizing the signing of the Mayflower Compact, and other activities. When stated by a teacher, the question may reflect a strong positive or negative attitude toward the activity, and wisdom may suggest an answer which supports the existing bias. Since the business of this section is the assessment of problem solving, it seems necessary to risk censure by examining a few sample activities.

The painting of a mural may be a satisfactory way to organize information or describe a problem. It may be possible to depict the treatment of Indians by colonists in such a way that injustice is clearly shown through the representation of several incidents which support the conclusion. This may even be the best activity for a given group of children. On the other hand, if some children in a primary classroom have decided that some action by them would make the neighborhood a better place to live, the best activity would probably be their taking the suggested action and subsequently evaluating the consequences. In this case, painting a mural might be an excellent way of expressing their creative impulses, but it would not be a satisfactory substitute for action. This or any similar activity is not "good" in problem solving, but it may be a good means by which a group of children state or test the solution to a given problem.

Some language activities enable children to describe and test solutions, and their value may similarly be judged on the basis of the degree to which they are suited to the solution. Dramatizations, dramatic play, debates, and study of the diary of a boy living in colonial times, etc. constitute activities of this type. It is assumed that the number of hours spent on a given activity will not constitute a disproportionate share of the time allotted for problem solving. When the entertainment or instruction of parents or children in other classrooms is a major purpose of the activity, another criterion has been added which substantially alters the basis for the teacher's judgment.

Such language activities as reporting and listing or taking of notes have a different purpose and thus should be examined separately. When children have access to and use a variety of sources of information, they need to keep a record of those facts which are relevant to the problem. The lists of notes constitute means, not ends, and presumably would not be "copied over" for classroom display. The children will probably discover some facts that are related to the work of others in the classroom, and the informal regular reporting of these should be encouraged. These reports should include identification of the source itself in order that the children can check it directly. These comments should not be interpreted to support the lengthy, formal reports on "whales" and other topics which are read, day after day, to a restless, captive audience by a succession of reporters whose main interest in the matter is the satisfactory completion of an assigned task.

This evaluation of specific activities might be continued indefinitely, but should be concluded at or near this point. It seems reasonably clear that the process of problem solving does provide a consistent basis for the making of decisions regarding the value of various types of learning activities. Although the frame of reference initially established was the decision making by the teacher, it should be noted that the process also provides guidance for the children in those situations in which teacher and children cooperatively plan the learning activities.

SUMMARY

This section attempted to assess the process of problem solving as a design for learning activities in the social studies. The assessment was made on the basis of two sets of criteria. The first set included four conditions which substantially affect the quality of learning. The second set was made up of issues on which the classroom teacher is required to make a decision.

Problem solving was described in order to establish clearly the process which was being assessed. As defined, the process was found to be supported by learning criteria which included the learner's interest, his purpose, the developmental appropriateness of the task, and the richness of the learning environment. The value of problem solving in providing guidance for classroom decisions was indicated by its application to issues concerning grouping, the appropriateness of sources of information, and the desirability of several types of activities.

If the teacher knows and uses problem solving as the basic structure for children's activities in social studies, he may be confident that the structure is in harmony with broadly accepted principles of learning. This same structure facilitates the selection of appropriate learning experiences from the lengthy list of possible activities suggested by those who developed the curriculum guide for social studies. If he encourages children to participate in the planning of their activities, their planning is similarly improved by the guidance function of the problem solving process. The process has no predisposition to murals, oral reports or booklets, and its use leads to a variety of experiences which are appropriate to the wide range of problems included in the social studies.

Problem solving constitutes one means to achieve identified goals, not a panacea for all instructional ills. If the goals of the social studies program are inconsequential, this process will not increase their stature. Problem solving in itself will not suddenly change a child's total indifference to school into an avid concern for the business of the classroom. Lastly, it does not reduce the importance of the teacher's improving his acquaintance with the contributions to our knowledge made by scholars in the social sciences. In a few words, problem solving is an aid to, not a substitute for, an excellent teacher.

CHAPTER III

Content in the Social Studies

Section One: Generalizations from the Social Sciences

Paul R. Hanna and John R. Lee

CONTENT DRAWN FROM VARIOUS SOURCES

THE content for a modern social studies program is drawn from various sources. Three sources are easily identified in school practice:

1. That informal content found in the ongoing activities of the several expanding communities of men in which the pupil lives. The neighborhood fire department puts out a blaze that threatens the local theater; a mountain climbing expedition scales a hitherto unconquered peak; the annual state fair opens; a Congressional bill creates a new National Park; an important new petroleum field is brought into production in a remote region; or a youngster's family adds a new baby.

The successful teacher is alert to the continuous flow of exciting events in human society. Modern transportation carries the pupil farther and farther out to communities that lie beyond the family, the school, and the neighborhood, thus providing direct experiences in the basic activities of men. Modern mass communication media are drumming on the pupil's sensory organs during his waking moments and thrust him vicariously into the heart of a thousand events distant in time and space. From these many and powerful stimuli—direct and vicarious—the successful teacher is constantly selecting content that makes a modern social studies program exciting and keeps the program moving with the human events of the times.

2. The second source of social studies content is the formal disciplines of the pure or semisocial sciences: human geography, history, political science, economics, sociology, anthropology, social psychology, jurisprudence, philosophy and ethics, and linguistics. These social sciences—and particularly the first three listed—have traditionally been

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This section was reviewed by George Beauchamp and Jonathon McLendon of Northwestern University and Richard E. Gross and G. Wesley Sowards of Stanford University.

the major reservior for social studies content. In the first quarter of this century, however, the almost exclusive dependence on formal content drawn from the social sciences resulted in too static a program and was accompanied by excessive drill on geographic, historical, and civic facts. The program seemed to pupils to be far removed from the excitement of daily affairs and lacked interest out of which grows effort to learn.

The second quarter of this century saw much experimentation in the elementary school classroom with more and more dependence upon "current events" and pupil interest. The social sciences as the primary source of content gave ground to these newer influences in the learner-centered schools, thus contributing to a new curricular imbalance.

John Dewey spoke out against the new excesses in this now famous paragraph:

> It is ground for legitimate criticism, however, when the ongoing movement of progressive education fails to recognize that the problem of selection and organization of subject matter for study and learning is fundamental. Improvisation that takes advantage of special occasions prevents teaching and learning from becoming stereotyped and dead. But the basic material of study cannot be picked up in a cursory manner. Occasions which are not and cannot be foreseen are bound to arise wherever there is intellectual freedom. They should be utilized. But there is a decided difference between using them in the development of a continuing [and planned] line of activity and trusting to them to provide the chief material of learning.[1]

3. A third source of content is found in the responses of pupils both to (a) the informal events cited as the first source, and (b) the more formal studies referred to as the second source.

The child's response to the new baby in the family can mature a school pupil's sense of responsbility, or the event can awaken a sense of insecurity and jealousy. The fire in the local theater may strengthen a fear complex or deepen a sense of security because members of a community help one another. The successful mountain climbing expedition may inspire pupils to inquire whether there still will be unconquered peaks to challenge them when they are adult. The public acquisition of private land for a new National Park may disturb any youngsters whose families must change residence and present livelihood to make way for the Park, or the event may elicit pleasure over the anticipated vacations in the wilderness. The development of a distant petroleum field could cause concern over the possible loss of income for markets for oil locally produced, or such an event could bring satisfaction that the earth's known oil reserves have been increased. Such responses constitute a vital part of the content of a good social studies program in those classrooms where the teacher is committed to drawing on this source.

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[1] Dewey, John. *Experience and Education*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1938. p. 95-96. [Words in brackets supplied by authors of this Yearbook chapter.]

So, too, do the responses pupils make to their more formal studies contribute to the content of the social studies. As a pupil learns that economic specialization and interdependence go hand and hand in the business of the neighborhood, so this understanding later permits a pupil to see the roles specialization and interdependence play in the study of regions of states or regions of nations. The pupil who grasps these concepts also finds they influence his life in the classroom: if his class works in committees to solve some problem, he puts into effect what he understands about the need for all groups to do their share if an agreed upon end is to be achieved.

As with a pupil's responses to contemporary affairs, the thought patterns that have developed from study of social science generalizations lead to behavior in the classroom. This behavior, a pupil's reflection on it, and class discussion of it, becomes part of the content of a good social studies program.

Background of the Research Hereafter Reported

In the third quarter of this century we witness balance being restored in the social studies program as the content is once again rooted in social science generalizations that are fed by the less formal experiences of contemporary happenings and by youngsters responses. The contemporary professional education literature clearly reflects the acceptance of the notion that "today we teach children—something." And that "something" is the resultant of a synthesis of content from all three sources built around generalizations drawn from the social sciences.

This section of the Yearbook is an attempt to summarize a series of research projects that explores this second source of social studies content as found in the literature of the several social science branches.[2]

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[2] It must be recalled that in the 1920's a group of researchers under the leadership of Harold Rugg probed this problem. Among the studies that influenced the research reported in this chapter were:

Meltzer, Hyman. *Children's Social Concepts.* Contributions to Education, No. 122. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925.

Billings, Neal. *Determination of Generalizations Basic to the Social Studies Curriculum.* Baltimore: Warwick and York, 1929.

Rugg, Harold, and John Hockett. *Objective Studies in Map Location.* Lincoln School Social Science Monographs No. 1. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925. p. 25.

Hockett, John. *A Determination of the Major Social Problems of American Life.* Contributions to Education No. 281. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927.

Lee, Baldwin. *Issues in the Social Studies.* Lincoln School Social Science Monographs No. 3. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928.

In 1953 certain members of the faculty of the School of Education at Stanford University discussed the possibilities of designing research that would do for the social studies what had so successfully been accomplished for the general sciences program of the elementary schools: search the literature of the social sciences for significant generalizations that could be used as a check for comprehensiveness and continuity in providing teaching-learning experiences for pupils. The enterprise seemed overdue, appeared feasible, and was assured the support of colleagues in the social science departments of the University.

First Research by Douglass

Malcolm Douglass, a doctoral student working with Paul R. Hanna, volunteered to become the first researcher and help test the entire scheme as well as refine specific research techniques.

Douglass had substantial undergraduate and graduate work in geography which qualified him to tackle this particular discipline. In the Stanford Department of Geography there was enthusiastic support for the research and Professor Paul E. Griffin accepted membership on the dissertation committee to work with Professors Hanna and Richard E. Gross in general supervision. Work began in 1953 and the dissertation was completed in June of 1954.

In the opening chapter of his dissertation Douglass said:

> The investigation . . . is concerned with one facet of the fundamental educational problem of what to teach. It tests the hypothesis that an analysis of selected literature in human geography will yield widely applicable interrelationships which persist between man and the natural environment.[3]

Douglass had the help of University faculty members in critically selecting material on geography published during the years 1946-1953. Sixty-one books and articles by 59 geographers became the basis for the research. Douglass then proceeded to examine these texts. When he came upon what he considered an important interrelationship between man and his environment, he extracted the entire statement and then reduced it to the hard core of the generalization. Selections from several pages (48-50) are reproduced here from the Douglass introductory chapter to demonstrate his procedure of recording the generalizations from the literature.

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[3] Douglass, Malcolm P. *Interrelationships between Men and the Natural Environment for Use in the Geographic Strand of the Social Studies Curriculum.* Privately produced and distributed in limited edition by author. Stanford, California: Stanford University, School of Education Doctoral Dissertation. 1954. 241 p.

Modern civilization is based largely on minerals, which for reasons discussed in (previous chapters) are more easily found and mined in mountains than in lowlands. The quest for the golden fleece has gone forward since the dawn of civilization, enticing the adventurous. Prospectors have gone into the most hostile parts of the world: into the snow-clad waste of the Klondike, the thirsty desert of Arizona, the fever-infested jungle of Colombia, or the dizzy heights of the Andes. And for many of these hardy souls, it is a bitter trail at whose end is found not gold but disappointment.[4]

Recorded: (a) "Modern civilization is based largely on minerals."
(b) "Minerals . . . are most easily found and mined in mountains than in lowlands."

It is significant that most of the world's population dwells in the Northern Hemisphere. It is significant, too, that for the most part dense population is to be found in those parts of the earth best bestowed by nature. Unfortunately, these areas comprise but a fraction of the dry land of the globe: probably not more than one-fourth of the earth's surface receives sufficient precipitation for agriculture and much of this one-fourth is too rough or too cold for successful farming.[5]

Recorded: "For the most part dense population is to be found in those parts of the earth best bestowed by nature."

A limited hinterland hinders the growth of a port even though the harbor is excellent, as is illustrated by the experience of a ship called the *Minnesota*. When she was built, she and her sister ship, the *Dakota*, were the largest vessels flying the American flag. She was put into commission between our Pacific Coast and Oriental ports. Unfortunately, however, she could not at that time get a full load without a long wait. This was so expensive that finally she was transferred to the Atlantic side. The trouble was that on the Pacific side the hinterland contained too few people to supply full cargoes at frequent intervals. The hinterland on the Atlantic side, however, was so much more populous that it easily employed this ship and many others.[6]

Recorded: "A liminted hinterland hinders the growth of a port even though the harbor is excellent. . . ."

Not only in the United States, but in all parts of the world, the demands of commerce usually cause the greatest cities to be located beside the sea. Of the 125 largest cities in the world, 80 can be reached by oceans steamers, and 7 by those plying the Great Lakes of North America. Even among the remaining 38 interior cities, 27 are located on large navigable rivers such as the Mississippi, Danube, Vistula, and Nile, or a few on small navigable rivers of no great importance, such as the Seine, Spree, and Oka, and only 11 are essentially without communication by water.[7]

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[4] White, C. Langdon and George T. Renner. *Human Geography*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1948. p. 356.

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 618.

[6] Huntington, Ellsworth. *Principles of Human Geography*. Sixth edition, a revision by Earl B. Shaw. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1951. p. 274.

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 275.

Recorded: ". . . in all parts of the world, the demands of commerce usually cause the greatest cities to be located beside the sea."

Approximately 3,500 statements of interrelationships were recorded and keyed to the source literature by Douglass. Such a large number required a method of classification and the American Geographical Society Research Catalog was adapted to this purpose. The 3,500 statements were then classified into one or another of the categories of the adapted scheme, or in some cases where the statement suggested more than one generalization, a system of cross coding emerged.

The next task called for synthesis. Comparable statements of interrelationships were combined in a manner demonstrated in the following excerpt from Douglass:

> The following examples demonstrate the method of synthesizing the data into representative statements of interrelationships. The code number appearing directly below individual statements indicates the reference and page from which the statement was drawn. The series of code numbers appearing under the statement which represents the synthesis of all the statements recapitulates the sources from which it is drawn. In cases where a quotation is used in the synthesis, the first code appearing to the left and underneath the statement refers to the source of the quotation. This is the method employed in the presentation of the findings in Chapter III. The reader may ascertain the full citation by referring to Appendix I.
>
> "The capacity of the earth to support population depends not only on agricultural resources but also on other segments of the economy."
>
> 34-181
>
> "Populations are . . . unevenly spread as a result mainly of the existence of differential capacities to support people."
>
> L-134
>
> "The physical conditions of geologic structure, relief, climate, and vegetation are partial determinants of [how many people an area can support]."
>
> L-149
>
> "Disparity in population density is a function of the capacity of land to support its human occupants, but the numerical relationship between a given area is subject to change."
>
> L-149
>
> ". . . diversity of the natural endowment on man is clearly reflected in the uneven distribution of the people of the earth and in the wide differences in their economic development and living standards."
>
> M-81
>
> "The population potential of regions, and thus of national entities,

is a reflection of the present and potential carrying capacity of the areas in question."

N-530

Synthesis: The uneven distribution of man throughout the world is a reflection of the carrying capacities of the different regions.[8]

This process of grouping and synthesizing the recorded statements resulted in the final selection of 824 generalizations about the interrelations of man and his natural environment organized for presentation in this study under 71 logical subheadings. To illustrate the manner of presentation, we have selected the first five from among 21 generalizations recorded under the subheading of *Population Movement* which is a part of the general heading of "Population Interrelationships."

96. The possibility of migration first requires "the establishment of means of communication between the regions having contrasting economic densities of population.[9]

H-409; R-539

97. "All other things being favorable, immigrants tend to follow their homeland isotherms."

15-237; G-60; H-299

98. People tend to move from areas of lesser to areas of greater economic opportunity.

39-4; A-98; Q-5; Q-167; R-539

99. Where population pressure becomes intensified, people may seek "living space" elsewhere.

F-5; N-555

100. The discovery of a mineral in a region of limited opportunity and sparse population tends to provoke movement toward and settlement in the area of the discovery.

A-156; E-483[10]

One hundred copies of the Douglass volume were multilithed and circulated for review among geographers and curriculum specialists. The reactions encouraged continuation of the project.

NEW RESEARCH DESIGN DEVELOPED

Experience with the Douglass research design raised fundamental questions concerning the optimum division of labor among the researchers who were to continue the project. In what way could the total job be divided so that each researcher would gain the maximum new knowledge that would be useful to him in subsequent leadership responsibilities in the elementary school curriculum? Further, in what form would the results of the researches be most useful to teachers, curriculum workers, and publishers?

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[8] *Ibid,* p. 57-58.

[9] Material within quotation marks is exact wording of one of the documents consulted.

[10] Douglass, *op. cit.,* p. 84.

The decision was finally reached that a design for the elementary school social studies program widely used in the nation would serve as a guide to the division of responsibility for this research project.[11] The scope and sequence of this design constitute two sets of coordinates.

Scope refers to the breadth or range of content and experiences to be provided. The scope is concerned with the *what* of the curriculum. The *scope* is defined as the basic human activities through which men have met their needs and solved their problems arising from man-to-man relations in social, economic, and political settings. The typical categories of activities are:

1. Protecting and conserving human and natural resources and property
2. Producing, exchanging, distributing, and consuming food, clothing, shelter, and other consumer goods and services
3. Transporting people and goods
4. Communicating ideas and feelings
5. Providing education
6. Providing recreation
7. Organizing and governing
8. Creating tools, technics, and social arrangements
9. Expressing and satisfying aesthetic and spiritual impulses.[12]

Such a catalog of basic human activities, universally carried on by all societies regardless of time or location, has been found to have several advantages over other, less carefully planned designs: first, the nine (or 10) categories make up the totality of the citizenship activities in which all Americans need to develop competency; second, the list can be used as a checklist against which the teacher and pupils test the comprehensiveness of what is planned from day to day or week to week; third, such a list suggests content drawn from the ongoing life of the society and the pupils and from the literature of the social sciences.

From the point of view of children, they relate themselves to the scope content of the basic human activities, not as outsiders viewing only the adult activities within each of these categories, but in terms of their own operations at their elementary level of contact with these clusters of activity.

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[11] Hanna, Paul R. "Society-Child-Curriculum." *Education 2000 AD*. Syracuse: Syracuse University Press, 1956. p. 165-99.

[12] Subsequently this ninth basic human activity was divided between two researchers, one dealing with aesthetic and the other dealing with religious matters, making 10 studies in this phase of the project.

We now turn to the *sequence* of the design. Sequence refers to the continuity and order of experiences provided from year to year. It is concerned with the *when* of the social studies program. The sequence of this design consists of the expanding communities of men. The *emphases* of the sequence start with the oldest, and to the youngster, the nearest, of the communities—the family—and move logically outward like concentric bands to the outer band of the world community. The typical sequence of emphases:

1. The family community
2. The school community
3. The neighborhood community
4. The local, county, and metropolitan communities
5. The state community
6. The region-of-states community
7. The national community
8. The United States and the emerging Inter-American community
9. The United States and the emerging Atlantic community
10. The United States and the emerging Pacific community
11. The United States and the world community.

In discussing the continuation of the research begun by Douglass it was agreed that two research teams would be organized: (Phase 1) the first team of 10 advanced graduate students and their faculty advisors would carry on the research in the literature of the social sciences, organizing the division of labor into the several categories of basic human activities listed above; (Phase 2) upon completion of this series of 10 dissertations a second team of 11 researchers would take the generalizations identified and classified in the first phase and restate them in terms of each of the 11 expanding communities of men. More will be said later in this chapter about this second research phase of the research design.

The new research design thus led to a division of responsibility different from the one in mind when Douglass initiated the project. Phase 1 was divided into 10 dissertations that are identical in the beginning of their titles and each study has a sub-title referring to one of the several clusters of basic human activities. Inasmuch as all 10 studies are now complete and available in microfilm the title, author, source, and cost are given in the accompanying chart for quick reference.

This team of advanced graduate students had the counsel of many Stanford faculty members drawn from the School of Humanities and Sciences and from the School of Education. From time to time the entire team of students and faculty met as a group to discuss purposes, assumptions, research design, specific techniques, and to review progress.

The team arrived at seven basic assumptions concerning the studies:

1. Significant literature from the various social science disciplines provides one of several sources of social studies content.

CHART I

Ten Doctoral Dissertations Resulting from a Research Project for Elementary School Social Studies[13]

under Coordination of

Professors Paul R. Hanna and Richard E. Gross
Stanford School of Education

Title	*Author*	*University Micro-film #*	*No. of Pages*	*Price*
Social Science Generalizations for use in the Social Studies Curriculum:				
Organizing and Governing	Clay Samuel Andrews	23,169	165	$2.20
Providing Recreation	Harold Gardner Emmerson	23,172	155	2.05
Protecting and Conserving Human and Natural Resources	Owen C. Geer	59-1423	190	2.50
Expressing Religious Impulses	John Robert Lee	25,354	184	2.40
Expressing and Satisfying Aesthetic Impulses	A. Daniel Peck	58-2495	180	2.35
Transporting People and Goods	John Franklin Rambeau	20,438	191	2.50
Producing, Exchanging, Distributing and Consuming Food, Clothing, Shelter, and Other Consumer Goods and Services	James Runge	58-3586	220	2.85
Communicating Ideas and Feelings	George P. Rusteika	58-3587	200	2.60
Providing Education	Vinton Stafford Stratton	23,181	166	2.20
Creating Tools, Technics, and Social Arrangements	John M. Hofstrand	Library Congress No.5 968 68	183	2.50

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[13] Microfilms of the first nine titles of the above doctoral dissertations may be purchased from University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, Michigan. The last title may be purchased from the Library of Congress.

2. The identification and classification of generalizations from the various social science disciplines will represent a contribution to social studies programming and instruction.

3. Generalizations, as differentiated from concepts, literal facts, and opinions have value as end products or "anticipated outcomes" of the learning process in the social studies.

4. The judgments of selected specialists in each of the social science disciplines can be accepted concerning the selection of basic literature for use in these studies.

5. The researchers in these studies are competent to apply the established criteria for the identification of generalizations from the selected research literature.

6. The criteria set forth by the researchers for the identification are such that a high degree of consistency can be achieved among the members of the research team.

7. The categorization of generalizations within a scope comprising 10 basic human activities common to all cultures and societies is of greater functional utility to school systems than methods of categorization used by researchers previous to these studies. The method used is selected because of its inclusiveness and its utility for purposes of this series of studies.

The team further stated four delimitations for the series of 10 studies:

1. The six selected social science disciplines of anthropology, economics, geography, political science, social psychology, and sociology, and the cross-disciplinary field of each basic human activity will constitute the source material from which generalizations for these studies will be derived.

2. Because each of the six social science disciplines enumerated above has its own historical dimension, history texts (per se) were not included; but generalizations having historical content were sought and recorded in abundance in each basic human activity.

3. The identification and organization of generalizations from the various social science disciplines will be in terms of 10 basic human activities common to all cultures and societies.

4. While these studies deal only with the identification and classification of generalizations according to 10 basic human activities common to all cultures and societies, the researchers assume that these classified generalizations will be the springboard for further investigations such as the:

   a. determination of the suitability for inclusion of generalizations in the social studies program through use of statistical correlation of jury judgments of teachers and/or specialists.

b. classification and placement of generalizations in some sequential fashion determined by curriculum framework.

The team sought help from faculty in selecting the basic literature which would form the core for all 10 researches. The detailed method of final election is given in the second chapter of each study, together with the titles of the literature studies. In addition to this list of 36 volumes (six books in each of six social science disciplines), each researcher had an extended list of references for his own basic human activity that usually doubled the final list he used.

The team developed systems for identifying generalizations, uniformly recording them, coding, building a classification framework, verifying, synthesizing, and editing—all of which are described fully in the dissertations.

The team arrived at an operational definition of a generalization: for the purposes of this series of studies *a generalization is a universally applicable statement at the highest level of abstraction relevant to all time or stated times about man past and/or present, engaging in a basic human activity.*

In accord with this definition, the following statements must be made explicit:

1. The stated generalization, or the context within which it appears, shows that the author believes that there are no known exceptions.
2. The stated generalization is not limited by reference to specific geographic or cultural boundaries.
3. The facts upon which a generalization is based are not in themselves generalizations.
4. Neither a concept nor a definition is here considered to be a generalization and can appear only in the context of an otherwise acceptable generalization.
5. Opinions are not considered to be generalizations unless the specialist also reports that the opinion as a hypothesis has been tested and found to have no know exceptions.
6. Generalization must have applicability to all places in all times, or be applicable to all places within a stated period of time.
7. Generalization can be either primary, statistical, or functional.
8. Generalization must deal with man in a societal orientation, not as an isolated individual.
9. Generalization must be applicable to man at the highest level of abstraction rather than to specific men or communities.

Space limitations here dictate omission of many of the salient aspects of the research methodology of this series of studies. The discussion of these features consumes about 80 pages in each study. Faculty members and researchers were aware of several limitations of the research design and methodology here employed. Such problems of replicability, synthesization, or degree of universality were not resolved to the entire satisfaction of the group. But all felt that the research project, even with some problems unsolved, could be made dependable, and would be of great potential use in the social studies program of the elementary schools.

The remaining text of this section will attempt to illustrate some of the findings of the research team working on Phase I and to indicate some of the uses of these findings.

In the interest of economical reporting, the original sources of the data have been dropped from these listings. The reader working directly with one of the dissertations or its microfilm, however, would have the references immediately available. For example, in Lee's *Expressing Religious Impulses,* generalization numbered 221 would appear in this manner:[14]

> 221. In all ages and places, the local geographical environment influences religious expression in its intellectual, cultic, and organizational forms.
>
> NQ. 7-245; 13-136; 14-18; 14-49; 17-144; 17-196; 17-473

The person interested in seeing how the generalization appeared originally would then turn to pages 82-84 of the Lee dissertation where the references are coded. NQ means the generalization is not a quotation but a synthesis of quotations; 13-136 means that on page 136 of book 13 (White and Renner's *Human Geography*) there is a generalization that supports the synthesis reported. If this reference is consulted this sentence is found: "In all ages and in all places, every religion has been intermeshed with the natural environment."[15] If the other references were checked, a person would find the original statements contained a common conceptual thread that permitted the synthesis as stated in generalization 221.

In the samplings of generalizations from the 10 studies which follow, an attempt was made to show the range of content from many different parts of each study. If space had permitted, it would have been useful to indicate the heading of the sub-category under which each generalization was classified by the researcher. The reader will have to obtain the dissertation or its microfilm for the more complete view of the structure of ideas for each of the 10 dissertations.

The Runge Investigation

A sampling follows of the 541 generalizations found in the James

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[14] Lee, John R. "Social Science Generalizations for Use in the Social Studies Curriculum: Expressing Religious Impulses." Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation. Stanford University: Stanford University School of Education, 1957. p. 128.

[15] White, Charles L., and George T. Renner. *Human Geography*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1948. p. 136.

Runge study which focused on *Producing, Exchanging, Distributing, and Food, Clothing, Shelter, and Other Consumer Goods and Services.*[16]

1. "There is no society without methods of production, distribution, consumption, and some form of exchange."

4. "[In a free system] What things will be produced is determined by the votes of consumers—not every two years at the polls but every day in their decisions to purchase this item and not that."

37. "While people are supporting themselves with hunting, fishing, and wild food-gathering, the area will support only a thin population."

104. ". . . productivity is greatly enhanced by personal and regional specialization."

117. "With their present specialization of effort and numerous wants, civilized populations are dependent on many and often distant regions for a considerable part of their food, clothing, and other requirements."

146. "As the capital goods became more intricate and expensive, people began joining efforts in owning these means of production."

170. "The rise of [farm] productivity has constantly decreased the proportion of population engaged in farming, releasing the remainder to live in towns or cities and to work in factories or other lines."

197. "Power-driven machinery multiplied many times the specialized production per man and greatly increased total volume of goods to be exchanged."

211. "Factory production brought population congestion."

240. "Not one civilized country on earth can lay claim to being completely self-supporting."

266. "As the means of transportation became more efficient and costs were lowered, trade expanded to include larger areas and more types of goods with a resulting decrease in local self-sufficiency."

375. "One of the basic incitements to violence has been that there was not enough of the world's goods to go around among the many claimants, even with the low standards of living accepted as normal in a given time."

390. "With few exceptions, the higher the price, the lower will be the quantity sold, and vice versa."

404. ". . . the poorer a family, the greater the proportion of its total expenditure used for food."

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[16] See Chart I for further information on author, title, etc.

412. "An increase in investment causes an increase in national income, employment, production, and total savings."

479. "When a great many men specialize and exchange their products, greater production brings a higher living standard."

515. "The governments of large and complex social orders have always actively dealt with economic behavior."

538. "With the advance of technology, economic functions became increasingly specialized."

The Rambeau Investigation

A sampling follows of the 423 generalizations found in the John Rambeau study which focused on *Transporting People and Goods.*

2. "Man's need for transportation is timeless and all-inclusive. It is equally essential to economic, political, religious, educational, and other cultural activity."

13. "In the development of a mechanized mode of transportation the invention of the power precedes the development of the vehicle and the way."

55. "The development of communication and transportation routes in any area is vitally affected by the physical factors of terrain and climate."

56. "The most important trade routes center on those regions where high productivity and dense population combine to produce a surplus of goods."

94. "Transportation charges are part of the costs of production, must be included in the price of the goods, and must be borne by the consumer."

103. "Cheap and efficient transportation reduces the cost of goods to the consumer through reducing the costs of production by encouraging large-scale production, increasing geographical specialization, reducing the costs of assembling raw materials, and increasing the scope of markets."

108. "A society with a very simple technology and lacking any means of transportation save human carriers is confined to the resources of a single area and may achieve only a bare subsistence."

160. "The moving of things in space in such a way as to make them more useful to man is just as productive as is changing the form of things so as to make them more useful."

183. "The one great advantage of water transportation under favorable conditions is economy."

221. "Air transportation has become an indispensable instrument for the promotion of international trade and foreign investment."

264. "Highway motor transportation, in contrast to other major modes of mechanized transportation, is essentially private and personalized."

303. "The railroads have inherent advantages as carriers performing mass transportation service, and are equipped to move large volumes of goods for long distances at comparatively low rates."

354. "The growth of large cities in a modern, industrial society results from the territorial division of labor, large-scale production, and exchange of goods which cheap and efficient transportation makes possible."

362. "While improved transportation has contributed markedly to the concentration of populations, it has also aided in the dispersion of populations, especially around the large metropolitan areas."

373. "The world today, by reason of its rapid transportation and easy means of communication, becomes more and more a single community, the destinies of its still widely divergent peoples inextricably intertwined."

398. "Since transportation is a fundamental instrumentality in maintaining the unity of social groups, it greatly influences the practical size of political and social unity."

The Rusteika Investigation

A sampling follows of the 488 generalizations found in the George Rusteika study which focused on *Communicating Facts, Ideas, and Feelings.*

6. "... all human beings, as we know the species today, share the notion that language and gestures are media of communication even though every culture has its specific variants of these media."

7. "Only as persons have invented some means of communication such as a language in which participants take roles in predictable ways, have they been able to organize societies, create, transmit, and preserve culture."

13. "National and regional rivalries have not existed because men had no common language, but they have had no common language because they were not in fact engaged extensively enough in the kinds of social behavior which facilitated and made imperative a common language."

16. "Before print the [local] community at large was the center of education."

21. "Language with all its variations influences its users by shaping their reasoning, and facilitating decision-makings."

29. ". . . all scientific works in all fields are written or spoken, and so are ultimately verbal."

37. "A language grows from countless communications within a social group, and from mutual influence among different groups."

62. "Prestige is wielded in the modern world through control over or access to the formal channels of mass communication—press, radio, film, and in another respect, church and school."

89. "Regional specialization in production has promoted the development of communication nets of various degrees of complexity."

115. "Print enables one man to speak to many, whereas the readers of any one manuscript were few."

171. "Of all such monopolies [of power] the most immediately fatal to democracy is the monopoly of the media of opinion."

195. "A language has as many words as may be needed by the speech community to express itself, and should its culture broaden to require the expression of new concepts, the language will immediately adapt to this need by the coinage or borrowing of new terms."

206. ". . . the greater the degree to which members of one group perceive the behavior of members of another as being hostile, the more communication between the two groups will be reduced."

209. "In modern communication across language barriers the parties concerned are notably at the mercy of their interpreters."

235. "Facilities for travel and communication are freeing country and village dwellers from former restrictions of locality and residence so that they can seek their satisfactions in group arrangements of their own choice or design."

239. "Travel and the communication inventions . . . break down differences in dialect, in customs and in manners."

476. "The creation of stereotyped patterns of behavior by the mass media of communication operate toward the maintenance of the going social and cultural structure rather than toward its change."

The Geer Investigation

Following is a sampling of the 268 generalizations found in the Owen Geer study which focused on *Protecting and Conserving Human and Natural Resources.*

1.3.2 "Where water is scarce enough to jeopardize the well-being of a community, its control [(conservation)] becomes a matter of public concern."

1.4.1 "Prevention of soil erosion through sound soil management programs will remove soil as a polluting influence on streams."

1.7.12 "Over wide areas men have overstepped the limits of stable, permanent production and in many cases have destroyed the very soil on which they depend."

1.8.1 "[Since]mineral resources are exhaustible, . . . only thru wise and careful use can the supply be maintained for use."

2.1.1 "Recent production figures for many . . . crops . . . indicate that yields per acre can be increased greatly. The development of hybrids, resistant to temperature and moisture extremes, and their protection by chemicals from insects, and other hazards, further increases production."

2.2.2 "When forests are protected from fire, insects, disease, and over-grazing of animals, they serve to preserve soil, hold underground water, shelter wildlife, supply material for man's use, add beauty to the landscape, and regulate climatic conditions."

3.1.1 "Successful reform that puts land in the hands of owners that can count on the fruits of their own enterprise has again and again in country after country almost literally turned sands into gold."

3.10.1 "To the extent that human beings discover the nature of the cultural process, they can anticipate, prepare, and—to at least a limited degree—control [their future]."

4.1.1 "The family bears the primary responsibility for human conservation in its vital functions of child bearing and rearing and of personality development and fulfillment through homemaking and the maintenance of the family way of life for adults and children."

4.5.1 "A nation that is looking toward permanent greatness and happiness cannot afford to destroy today what [natural resources] future generations will need but cannot reproduce. . . ."

4.7.1 ". . . the education of the public in the conservation and better utilization of natural resources is a matter of world-wide concern."

6.3 "Since all natural resources together constitute the indivisible environmental composite . . . it is impossible to conserve one without the regard for others."

6.11 "Everywhere in the world natural resources have been depleted by ignorant and reckless exploitation that has ignored the inexorable natural laws which maintain them."

The Stratton Investigation

A sampling follows of 268 generalizations found in the Vinton Stratton study which focused on *Providing Education.*

1. "Every teacher communicates points of view about her fundamental beliefs and loyalties, and her attitudes determine the spirit of the classroom."

15. "The answer to the question, who shall be educated and in what degree, goes far in determining the instructional program in any educational system."

19. "Regional conditions, physiographic and socio-economic alike, have direct bearing upon the curriculum and lend unique qualities to every educational program, however persistent may be the universal elements entering into it."

32. "Education and the schools deal consciously with the common culture and, whether they will or not, are involved instrumentally in the process whereby a civilization and a culture are continually remade."

38. "The school can provide many kinds of education which the home could never furnish."

46. "Whenever the functions of a society become differentiated or specialized, there is an increase in the formal aspects of its organization, and this is as true of education as it is of community life in general."

56 "Because of the influence of the political nature of the state, and that of the culture as a whole, an educational system is largely influenced and its character largely determined by factors and forces outside the school."

112. "The individual is a living member of the human whole, deriving his life from it through social and hereditary transmission; the transmission of the cultural heritage from one generation to another is a universal purpose of education."

121. "What individuals do and what they learn vary for two different cultures even though the natural environment is the same for both, for the cultural environment clearly has more effect on learning than does the natural environment."

129. "Though culture is a major force in molding the personality, no society succeeds in reducing all its members to a single personality type; individuals have distinctive cultural experiences and develop dissimilar personality traits."

130. "The ways in which basic drives are satisfied vary enormously, different cultures giving different directions to their expression, and producing variety as well as conformity."

203. ". . . there is apparently nothing in the native constitution of any normal human creature which precludes his acquisition of the language, habits, skills, outlooks, and appreciations of the particular national community in which he is reared."

223. "The need for suppressing or inhibiting individual difference and conforming to adult standards is understandable. When and how the translation is made is vital."

250. "Everything which is distinctively human is learned—environmentally imposed—even though it could not be learned without native structures which mark man off from other animals."

The Emmerson Investigation

A sampling follows of the 196 generalizations found in the Harold Emmerson study which focused on *Providing Recreation.*

2. "Recreation is an integral part of all human cultures wherever mankind, is found and in whatever state of advancement the culture may be, with recreational activities traversing the full life span of the individual and every person engaging in some form[s] of recreation."

3. "The advancing tide of modern recreation has been characterized by emphasis upon activities that require organization and equipment for their full enjoyment."

11. "Within a society people who are considered normal have many similar play experiences."

15. "Recreation patterns vary from country to country and from region to region within a country."

18. "With the occasional appearance of creative minds, new play methods are invented or improvements made in the old methods."

23. "A people most truly reveals itself in the character of its pleasures, for the ways in which leisure is used profoundly affect both the individual and the world in which he lives."

45. "The difference in recreational patterns is an outcome of the cultural conditions under which a people live, with the play forms of the group tending to become the play forms of the individual."

61. "Recreational changes are brought about in a society through the cross-fertilization process; more specifically by: warfare, travel, or ease of communication."

82. "As work becomes routinized and mechanized, recreation . . .

becomes more and more important as fulfilling a cultural need."

103. "There are few types of activities that have greater unifying influences than the communal forms of recreation."

133. "As man's leisure expands, as desires of recreation satisfactions arise, as wants become known, and as values are ascertained, the forces of recreation become more commercialized."

136. "Measured in terms of persons participating, commercial amusements reach more people and exert greater influence than the public and semi-public forms of recreation, with the commercialization increasing as recreation becomes more important."

151. "It devolved upon private agencies to meet leisure time needs for many years, but as society progresses, there is increased emphasis on the municipal, state, and federal governments in providing recreation."

152. "In a free society there are leisuretime choices of a wide variety with recreation seeking to develop in the individual dignity, self-respect, faith, and self-confidence. At the same time democracy encourages private and group participation, sharing and communal feelings, with the degree of democracy affecting the form of and general participation in recreation."

154. "Social disorganization affects recreation adversely. . . ."

159. "As wages rise, people become prepared to make some sacrifices in weekly wages in order to get a little more time in which to enjoy the fruits of their labor."

183. "The differences in [recreational patterns are] . . . an outcome of the geographic . . . conditions under which a people live."

187. "Inland waters and seaside locations [serve] as centers for health and recreation."

The Andrews Investigation

Following is a sampling of 254 generalizations found in the Clay Andrews study which focused on *Organizing and Governing.*

5. "Each human being is born into a society which is not formless but organized."

14. "Inherent in the association of human beings in society is the problem of regulating the power of some individuals or groups over others."

23. "Society can exist only when a great number of men consider a great number of things under the same aspect, when they hold

the same opinions upon many subjects, and when the same occurrences suggest the same thoughts and impressions to their minds."

33. ". . . human society depends upon each person's performing certain tasks in a certain way at the same time that others perform different tasks."

37. "In primitive society, where there is less division of labor and where change is slower, there are few associations and they are more inclusive."

44. ". . . as a social movement continues to grow, it acquires a framework of organization."

65. "Social institutions change when human needs change."

72. "In a complex society, associations tend to be specialized so that each stands for a particular type of interest or interest complex."

80. "Every type of the great associations has at one time or another been considered subversive."

81. "In all the countries where political associations are prohibited, civil associations are rare."

176. ". . . wherever society exists, man must set up lines of authority for the purpose of organizing for the common defense, the administration of justice, and the preservation of domestic order."

178. "[An important principle underlying all systems of government is] that of willingness to sacrifice for the general good of the group."

207. "When private property rights are a recognized means to personal security and happiness, men will organize governments to protect these rights."

211. "Political structures appear only when ecological factors permit permanent groupings larger than the family. . . . "

239. "The investment of leaders with the exclusive right to employ force or coercion in government occurs only with the formation of the conquest state."

241. "The continuing and most inclusive issue of politics is the relationship between the liberty of the individual and the authority of the state or government."

243. "A democratic society derives its strength from the effective functioning of the multitude of groups which it contains."

252. ". . . individuals and groups oppose vigorously government regulation of their activities, and support vigorously government activities that directly benefit them."

254. "Out of a situation of social unrest and dissatisfaction, a state

of social disorganization, there will arise sooner or later individuals who will lead the sufferers in protest."

The Lee Investigation

A sampling follows of the 267 generalizations found in the John Lee study which focused on *Expressing Religious Impulses.*

0. "In all times and in all places, people have expressed themselves religiously."

15. "Though relatively tenacious, religious tradition, even at the level of primitive culture, undergoes change and development."

16. "Religious traditions dealing with the ultimate nature and purpose of life serve to integrate the primitive community in normal times and are highly important in times of crises."

53. "One of the outstanding features of religious systems is the slow response of ritual forms to change except where the entire cultural pattern is altered."

61. "Cultic acts of worship become interwoven with a wide range of beliefs about man, nature, and numina, for although all religions demonstrate an awareness of more-than-human power, they have varying conceptions of its sources, nature, and manifestations."

101. "Religion and the family are so closely integrated that different denominational units within a single family occurs only in complex societies."

143. "The universal religions of today are open to all mankind and cannot be strictly correlated with local, national, or continental boundaries, nor with social, cultural, or linguistic types."

146. "All world religions face periodic protests against the main trend of their development . . . in theology, in cult, in organization."

154. ". . . in the history of the founded religions, increase in membership stimulates development in religious thought, activities, and organization."

179. "The sect as a form of religious organizations emerges in times of social change—when established churches fail to adjust to new social conditions, when societies become institutionally complex, when social stability declines, or when there are sudden shifts of political power."

183. "A sect that survives settles down to build an organization by gaining converts, perfecting its machinery, influencing public opinion, and improving its economic status."

190. "Full-time specialization in religious activities occurs within

a society in which there is a division of labor, an economic surplus, an increasing complexity of cultural conditions, and a developing elaboration of cultic practices."

221. "In all ages and places, the local geographical environment influences religious expression in its intellectual, cultic, and organizational forms."

227. "Each religion has grown out of former religions, never wholly outgrowing its origins and thereby bearing a likeness to other religions."

230. "In every religion, whether existing in identical or specifically religious forms of organization, there is to be some system of moral or ethical standards; and each faith seeks to overcome evil and achieve good in terms of its moral-ethical system."

253. ". . . when the pressure of whites upon aborigines reaches a certain point there will be a revival of the ancient religion or a partially new cult of messianic type will arise."

258. "The more advanced the process of social and cultural differentiation, the more diversified are the forms of religious expression."

259. ". . . subjective religion has at all times proved enough to unite and integrate people who are otherwise widely separated by differences in descent, profession, wealth or rank."

The Peck Investigation

Following is a sampling of the 282 generalizations found in the A. Daniel Peck study which focused on *Expressing and Satisfying Esthetic Needs and Impulses.*

6. "There are no societies which lack artistic activities altogether."

54. "In all arts . . . [techniques] change to some extent with the growth of science, and with the change of styles in the product, necessitating new techniques to fit them."

58. "Changes in art forms are rarely sudden, but occur along with changes in religion, government, and social ideals."

59. "Innovation in the arts must win its way against the association of sentiment with old forms."

108. "Tradition, adherence to existing forms, accepted patterns and conventions inhibit change in art forms."

129 ". . . the artist, to achieve greatness, must in some way appeal to a community-feeling."

131. "Art for the city . . . require[s] that the structures that are erected to carry on the essential activities of community life shall

be so planned and built that they will promote full and happy living."

191. "Esthetic value [of things man makes] is attained in form as it evolves from functional efficiency."

215. "A folk tale that incorporates details of an earlier period in the history of the people who tell it, documents that earlier life."

217. "Everywhere man sings, and in singing experiences the satisfactions that go with all forms of self expression."

221. "One can hear [music] and enjoy its message without knowing what it is supposed to represent."

261. ". . . trends and tastes are expressed more quickly in commercial art than in other fields."

262. "Its appeal must be obvious and general, for commercial art is effective only when it sells the product it advertises."

263. "Arts of commerce must be so self-evident, so obtrusive, that little study or contemplation is necessary."

The Hofstrand Investigation

A sampling of the 285 generalizations found in the John Hofstrand study which focused on *Creating New Tools, Technics, and Social Arrangements.*

2. ". . . the whole life-process is one of creative evolution in which the type and values of the species continually rise in the scale."

5. "Only through discovery and invention, and their methods of observation and experimentation, can man add new elements to the total content of his culture."

40. ". . . the simpler a culture is, the fewer are the materials and the narrower is the range of knowledge of which the inventor can be possessed, so that as a consequence the possibilities of invention are more limited."

48. "Every inventor builds upon the accumulation of previously acquired knowledge; and, therefore, every invention is dependent upon the known and available accumulation of knowledge."

91. "In the process of creative imagination much human experience and knowledge is given symbolic or generalized expression."

120. "National emergencies and conditions of social disruption provide special incentive to invent new techniques, and to strike out boldly for solutions to practical and social problems."

136. "Technological invention and industrial expansion rapidly

develop some industries and destroy others; they demand new skills and discard old ones."

156. "[Man creates] professional services (education, medicine, law, and so forth) and . . . personal services (domestic labor, barbering, street sweeping, and so forth) . . . to facilitate economic production in the commercial and other types of industries."

159. "The development of language reflects back upon thought; for with language thoughts may become organized, new thoughts evolved."

169. "For its own preservation the group develops means of facilitating indirect contacts and of controlling the behavior of its members through standard patterns . . . and through special techniques. . . ."

177. "New concepts, practices, and forms were developed by the great religious bodies in answer to special local and social needs and requirements."

198. "Only as persons have invented some means of communication such as a language in which participants take roles in predictable ways, have they been able to organize societies, create, transmit, and preserve culture."

216. "Man builds himself an invisible world of institutions . . . [through which] his life is ordered."

235. "Men want peace, order, prosperity, a right to live their own lives in their own way—and they frame governments to these ends."

284. "Modern technology is changing at a rapid rate and creating important social changes, with which our social institutions have not yet caught up."

THE USES AND LIMITATIONS OF THE GENERALIZATIONS

Obviously, this small sample of generalizations selected from various studies does not constitute an organized social studies program. Nor is there any inference here that the content of these combined studies constitutes a program or a curriculum. The assertion is rather that the generalizations contained in this series of studies provide a rich source from which teachers, administrators, and particularly curriculum workers may draw in giving substance, direction, and much needed balance to their social studies programs.

In listing their objectives, teachers use any of a number of rubrics: skills, knowledge, values, attitudes, abilities, understandings, facts, behaviors. Regardless of the terms employed, these objectives are the anticipated outcomes of instruction and learning. The generalizations reported in these studies are one source of answers to such questions as, "At what am I aiming? What am I trying to accomplish? What do I want my pupils to know? To Understand?"

Educators may select and adapt from these studies those generalizations they wish to use as anticipated outcomes of instruction. As aims for teaching, these generalizations help the curriculum maker avoid the criticism that social studies classes are often patchworks of unrelated information. No one remembers all the information he is exposed to, but a person tends to remember sound generalizations that he has derived for himself. The usefulness of generalizations resides in part in their organizing function—and information that contributes to generalization is thereby organized and tends to be more easily recalled. Facts that are thought to be important enough to be taught are also important enough to be bound together wherever possible into generalizations.

There is not sufficient space here to discuss the teaching of generalization, nor to argue the relative merits of inductive or deductive approaches to generalizations. Unfortunately, some teachers will undoubtedly require their pupils to memorize and recite generalizations wrenched free of a context of substantive facts. It is to be hoped that most educators will use more effective and sophisticated methods.[17] Our point is this: recognizing that a generalization might well be a desirable outcome of instruction, the teacher or curriculum maker is in a position to provide for youngsters' eventual formulation of the generalization by arranging for discussion, study, compositions, field trips, and other activities.

Two other advantages seem obvious in the use of the generalizations found in these studies. First, the teacher or curriculum planner has immediately available a number of generalizations representing syntheses of tremendous amounts of factual information. The teacher or supervisor therefore can economize with his limited time for curriculum planning by making initial selections from these reports. This economy then permits him to devote a greater proportion of his planning time to investigating topics of a more recent nature or those not covered in these studies.

Second, the educator can quickly trace the sources of a reported generalization to assure himself that its statement is accurate, and to grasp the context from which the generalization was taken. Even though most educators will be aware of the validity of the generalizations reported, they will also likely feel the need to review the factual information upon which the generalization is based before making use of it. These investigations serve in this sense as guides to recent and scholarly sources for relearning and review.

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[17] Brownell, W. A., and G. Hendrickson. "How Children Learn Information, Concepts and Generalization." *Learning and Instruction.* Forty-Ninth Yearbook, Part I. Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education. 1950. p. 92-126; and Bruner, Jerome S. *The Process of Education.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1960. 97 p.

Other persons interested in the social studies should also find that the generalizations in these studies will serve their purposes. For suggestions on ways of utilizing these generalizations, see especially the last chapter of Andrews or Rusteika on classroom teaching, of Emmerson or Peck on pre-service or in-service programs, of Stratton on administration, and of Runge on curriculum planning.

FURTHER RESEARCH PLANS

The series of studies reviewed here must be considered only a beginning in the long and continuous task of rooting our elementary school social studies program in the social sciences. No one is more aware than the researchers and faculty who undertook this Phase 1, of the need to turn to Phase 2. Work should begin soon on a second series of studies which will restructure and restate these generalizations in terms of their more specific meaning for each of the eleven expanding communities of men. Only when these universally stated generalizations have been examined and reduced to appropriate language for study of the neighborhood, the state, the nation, etc., will the generalizations be of greatest use. At that point it will be possible to state specific generalizations and sub-generalizations that can be incorporated directly into units and courses of study.

Section Two: Content, Trends, and Topics in the Social Studies

Dorothy W. Furman

In planning a social studies program for the elementary grades, three guiding purposes should be kept in mind: (1) to serve the needs of children; (2) to serve the needs of society; and (3) to understand and utilize the intellectual discipline called the social sciences.

In order to achieve the first purpose, a teacher will want to know and understand the nature of the children in the class; their abilities, needs, interests, and problems; some basic principles of child growth and development; the community and family background from which each child comes; and the in-school and out-of-school interests and experiences which have helped to shape each child.

The second purpose—and one which is often thought of as a major responsibility of the social studies—is to meet the needs of society. Society expects children to learn to be good citizens in our American democracy and ultimately to take their places as civic-minded, useful, productive members of the local, national, and world community. Society believes that a knowledge and appreciation of the American heritage is essential for the development of worthy citizenship. Society expects that through social studies children will acquire a growing understanding of the world in which they live—its history, lands, people, institutions, and even its problems.

The third purpose is to understand and utilize the intellectual discipline called the social sciences. Knowledge of history and geography plus the development of skills usually associated with social studies are especially important in the elementary school. At no other time during their years in school will children acquire the wealth of general and basic information about history and geography that they gain in the formative elementary grades. Skill in the use of informational resources, especially the printed page, is best learned during these years. The habit of recognizing and using reliable sources of information is instilled at this time. Skill in exercising critical judgment can be developed through the solution of social studies problems; or by investigating topics of interest; or by distinguishing between accuracy and inaccuracy, between truth and propaganda; or by the opportunities to discriminate between desirable and undesirable social behavior in their study of history and government as well as through their own daily experiences. Through the social studies program it is hoped that children can acquire these skills, habits, and knowledge.

CONTENT OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM

We live in a world that is constantly changing. Each day, events take place that require us to readjust our thinking, change our ideas, and alter our values. A scientific discovery, a record-shattering performance of speed, a national election, or the formation of a new nation or government all provide material for the social studies curriculum. For, in truth, the content of the social studies is much more than the record of man's achievements through the ages. It is as varied as the activities of mankind today. The social studies curriculum is history and geography. It is civics and government. It is economics, sociology, and anthropology. It is current affairs. It is the study of our environment and our relationship to it.

Obviously, the scope of the social studies curriculum must be narrowed for the elementary grades. Curriculum makers select those topics which experience and research have shown to be worthwhile and appropriate in preparing youngsters for informed responsible citizenship. Teachers, in turn, adapt the curriculum to meet the needs of the class, the school, the community, and the city or state. Thus, schools in a small rural community and in a large metropolitan city will differ in the way they adapt the social studies curriculum. At the same time, the broad framework and basic objectives of the social studies are fairly uniform throughout the United States.

In many of the 50 states, the social studies curriculum is taught as a unified, an integrated, or a correlated study of history, geography, civics, and current events. Its aim is not merely the acquisition of facts, skills, and habits, but also the understanding of related information and the development of historical, geographic, and civic concepts. The growth of such concepts is an important objective of all social studies, not only in the elementary grades, but in secondary schools and colleges as well.

Concepts in Elementary Social Studies

Social studies concepts are not facts to be learned. Instead they are functioning meanings and understandings which children acquire from their experiences as well as from subject matter. The inculcation of attitudes and understandings (concepts) is best begun in the elementary grades. But concepts need to be re-emphasized all through school by means of increasingly mature learnings and experiences.

In the elementary grades, a study of neighborhood workers in the community helps children understand that people depend on others for many of their needs. In similar fashion, a social studies unit on Latin America (or western Europe, or tropical Africa) reinforces the same understanding. A study of colonial life in America helps children understand that people, regardless of where they live (or when), have many similar problems and needs. The story of westward expansion in America can help youngsters develop the concept that geographic conditions influence the way people live. The study of how people live in a jungle, or on a northern tundra, helps children understand the influence of climate on man's way of life. The study of the Constitution or the United Nations helps to develop the concept that common problems and shared ideals help to unite people. The biographies of great men and women highlight the concept that many people of many nationalities, races, and religions have contributed to the world's progress.

Elementary school children can also be helped to build correct though necessarily simple concepts about important activities in our daily lives: transporting goods and people; communicating with one another; producing and consuming goods and services; satisfying religious aspirations; taking part in political or civic activities; helping less fortunate people; getting an education; and enjoying leisure. Such concepts, along with simple concepts about democratic government and effective citizenship, contribute to the fund of knowledge and to the tradition and heritage which make young children grow up to become good, useful American citizens. These and other social studies concepts should be reinforced from grade to grade as the scope of the social studies curriculum broadens and the experiences of children become more mature.

The Teacher's Role in Developing Concepts

The teacher's role is to plan and provide opportunities by which children will strengthen their understanding. Toward this end, the teacher uses the day-to-day activities in the classroom; the planned lessons consciously aimed at developing specific concepts; the "teachable moments" which arise in the classroom or community; and the social studies curriculum which provides rich opportunities through the study of history, geography, government, and current affairs.

Growth in understanding and in functioning attitudes is often slow. Only by repeated evidences of the truth of a concept in a variety of situations and through many related learnings can children gain understanding. It is important, therefore, for teachers to plan by means of many different experiences and facts for the recurrence and interpretation of ideas and concepts.

Some Basic Understandings To Be Developed Through Social Studies

The understanding of concepts is a goal toward which instruction in social studies should be directed. Teachers should re-word concepts so that children at any grade level from kindergarten through grade six will grasp their meaning.

1. People's ways of living are conditioned by their natural environment.
2. People work to satisfy their needs and desires.
3. People strive through laws and organizations to gain justice and security.
4. People have struggled through the ages to achieve a better life.
5. People become social through group life and shared experiences.
6. National and international problems are often caused by geographic conditions.
7. Each citizen has civic responsibilities as well as rights.

8. All normal human beings, if given a chance, are capable of making contributions to civilization.
9. People who lived in earlier times had many of the needs and problems that we have, but they met them differently.
10. Democracy is a way of life as well as a form of government.
11. Interdependence is a constant factor in human relations.
12. It is to man's own advantage to conserve the resources of nature.
13. People all over the world are much alike in feelings and needs, although they differ in appearance, ideas, and ways of living.
14. Many of the things we use in daily life come from distant lands.
15. People of many nationalities, religions, and cultures contributed to the development of civilization.
16. Throughout history people have experimented with a wide variety of governments.
17. Improved means of transportation and communication have made people in far away places more important to us.
18. Many people in our community work together to keep us healthy and safe; but each individual is also responsible for the health and safety of others.
19. Natural environment helps to explain human behavior today just as it did in the past.
20. The resources of mankind are scarce, unevenly distributed and developed, and they do not satisfy all the wants of mankind.
21. The work that people do in any place in the world depends on their abilities and needs as well as on the natural environment and resources of the region.
22. People have enriched their lives through education, religion, and the fine arts.
23. National and international problems are often caused by geographical conditions.
24. People in democratic nations are striving to secure international good will and permanent peace.
25. We must learn to live together harmoniously in all groups, large and small.

SUMMARY OF RECENT TRENDS IN SOCIAL STUDIES FOR ELEMENTARY GRADES

Following is a list of recent trends and emphases—in organization, in methods, in materials of instruction, and in the content of elementary social studies. These trends are evident in recent revisions of social studies programs and curriculum bulletins, in addresses delivered at national curriculum conferences, in research reports issued by universities and research organizations, and in the materials issued by the United States Office of Education.

1. *Recurring social studies concepts.* Identification and development of concepts basic to an understanding of human and geographic relationships is urged again and again in recent reports.

2. *Geographic education and map and globe skills.* There is a definite national re-emphasis on teaching geography. No doubt this is the result of the "space age," increased air travel, the impact of television, current world tensions, recent and rapid political changes, and the activities of the United Nations.

There is growing interest in a simple form of elementary social anthropology (though not entitled that way). In effect, this is a form of human geography in which learning about people and their relationship to their environment is an important focus. Geography related to current events receives greater attention.

In general, there is a trend away from the old locational type of geography. Increased emphasis is noticeable all over the country on better use of maps and globes. Map publishers have been helpful by their development of maps and globes suitable for use in elementary grades. New social studies textbooks carry expanded sections on geography.

The recent (1961) formation of a national committee by the National Council of Teachers of Geography to design a K-12 geography program indicates growing interest in geographic education.

Finally, the production of several recent curriculum publications designed to improve the teaching of map skills, as well as inclusion of specific geographic learnings, point the way to greater emphasis on geography.

3. *Current affairs.* Though this has been an accepted part of upper grade social studies, it is now emphasized in other grades as well. Suitable current events teaching is made easier by available weekly classroom newspapers suitable for young children, and by the use of radio and television in classrooms. Because of increased attention to current events in the elementary grades, there is increased use of reference matrials for background information to the news.

4. *Variety of instructional resources.* The trend is toward the use of modern textbooks *plus* a great many supplementary materials: reference books, maps and globes, pictures, newspapers and periodicals, films and filmstrips, recordings, radio and educational TV, people and community resources and children's encyclopedias.

5. *World understanding.* Teaching for international understanding is increasingly significant in elementary social studies as teachers and parents recognize the need for such education at an early age. In many states direct teaching about UN activities takes place as low as the third and fourth grades. Active participation by quite young children is furthered by the observance of such holidays as UN Day, Human Rights Day, Pan-American Day; and by children's participation in the work of the Junior Red Cross, UNICEF, and so forth.

6. *Citizenship education.* Responsible citizenship is one of the prime purposes of the social studies. It is constantly evaluated to discover new and better ways of bringing about this desired outcome in children. The growing emphasis on concept development is closely related to citizenship education. More and more elementary schools take part now in community and school civic activities as noted in Chapter V.

7. *Economic education.* Since young children eventually become producers and consumers of goods and services, curriculum makers recognize that economic education cannot begin too young. Progress has been made now in identifying those economic concepts which are important for young children to understand, and which they are capable of learning in the elementary grades.

8. *Conservation education.* Conservation education is expanding beyond the simple concepts related to saving wildflowers, birds, and animals. These are still important parts of conservation education for young children. But even elementary school children are able to understand the need for conservation of human as well as natural resources, of renewable as well as non-renewable resources. Great reclamation projects sponsored by the United States and by agencies of the UN help children understand that conservation is not a local problem, but an international one.

9. *Human relations.* The social studies curriculum is being asked to take on an even greater share of responsibility for the development of concepts designed to improve human relations. This is done not only through day-to-day living in the classroom, but through the study of history and geography, the Constitution and the Bill of Rights, the United Nations Charter and the Declaration of Human Rights.

10. *Content in social studies.* The trend today is toward a more enriched social studies program, with increased emphasis on subject matter learning, especially for gifted children. This in no way negates the "social living" aspects of the elementary program. But it does indicate that many pupils can and should be given a richer and more thought-provoking social studies program.

11. *The American heritage.* Though this has always been an important part of the elementary social studies program, there is evidence that society expects increased emphasis. Since elementary social studies textbooks are not able to furnish the background information necessary for the full development of this in the classroom, supplementary reference books are used to great advantage.

12. *Emphasis on study skills.* Skill in the use of instructional resources is emphasized more and more in elementary grades, as more materials suitable for these grades become available. Direct teaching

of map skills, skills in using graphs and charts, interpretation of pictures and diagrams, using an index and table of contents, finding and evaluating information in an encyclopedia—all of these are now considered important skills to be taught as part of the social studies. Since by their nature children's encyclopedias contain the materials for practicing these skills, they are especially useful instructional materials.

13. *Fact finding versus fact stuffing.* The trend in social studies today is away from memorization of isolated and unrelated facts. Instead, the social studies now emphasizes the ability to find, interpret, and use information. The ability to select the best source of particular information, and the skill needed to locate that information within the source, is important to social studies teaching.

14. *Structure in curriculum.* There is a growing trend away from the loose, unstructured social studies curriculum which was in use in a few schools. There is a tendency today to give the teacher more structure and more guidance; to provide specific themes or topics in social studies for each grade; and to suggest ways of developing each topic.

Several reasons account for this trend. Teachers have been saying that they need and want such guidance. Teachers found that topics of importance were sometimes overlooked. Sometimes the same topic was repeated in more than one grade. Teachers found, too, that children were often not able to plan (even with the help of the teacher) for a satisfactory social studies program.

Social Studies in the First Three Years

Social studies in the first three years of the elementary school is usually based on such topics as the home, the school, and the community. Social studies curriculum guides in different parts of the United States may word these topics in a variety of ways, but teachers will recognize their similarity.

The theory of starting with the "here and now"—the familiar things in the lives of young children—and gradually broadening their experiences in time and place is still well founded in educational psychology. For many years it has been the basis for social studies programs in the primary grades and for textbooks designed for these grades.

However, the 1960's exhibit a significant difference in the way social studies is being taught to young children. Many teachers realize that even very young children now come to school with experiences, ideas, information, and vocabulary which are a great deal richer than those displayed by young children ten, or even five years ago. Television, the automobile, and the airplane are familiar phenomena even to the youngest child when he first enters school. Children talk glibly about earth satellites, astronauts, and rockets to the moon. They see people, places, and events thousands of miles away pictured on their television screens almost at the moment they appear in other parts of the world. They experience (albeit vicariously) elections, tornadoes, and political revolutions in their living rooms. Many of them have gone on extended automobile trips, and an increasing number have even flown in airplanes by the time they first enter school. Furthermore, the mobility which characterizes a large number of American families today has made it necessary for thousands of young children to live in and adjust to different communities before they enter school.

Thus the teacher of young children can no longer be content to stay with a curriculum that relies solely on the "here and now." Even if she prefers to do this she finds her youngsters leaping ahead as they ask questions about astronauts, orbits, earth satellites, rockets, and space vehicles; or about the Congo, Cuba, Laos, or Soviet Russia.

The teacher of young children capitalizes on these interests and experiences today even while she recognizes that children often use words they do not understand or express opinions which reflect the ideas of their parents. Thus while the teacher continues to accept the psychological reasons for beginning with the known, she appreciates that children's "here and now" has expanded greatly. Furthermore she discovers the increasingly vast storehouse of information in the informational books written especially for younger children. It is pointless, she realizes, to limit her social studies to the environment immediately surrounding the school when children in her class may have lived in other places in the United States, or have travelled across many state lines, or have flown in an airplane, or have explored the wonderful world of books, or have seen the world and even the vast interstellar spaces of the universe on their television screens.

Social Studies Topics in the First Three Years

Social studies topics in the first three years include the following:

Living Together in Home, School, and Community. Children's firsthand experiences at home, in school, and in the community are the basis for much of the social studies instruction in the first three years of the elementary school. The sequence of topics may vary from school to school, and the emphasis in one class may differ from that in another. Schools in an urban community will study the immediate community in a different manner from schools in a rural community. In some schools topics suggested for the third grade may be part of the second grade curriculum, and vice versa.

How and Where We Get Our Food and Clothing. The study of food may center on the different kinds of food obtainable in the community, where foods come from, how they are transported, and how the are protected and preserved. The story of clothing may consider how people dress for different kinds of weather, for different occasions, and in different parts of the world. Children will want to know something about the materials that go into the manufacture of clothing and where these materials come from. Their experiences may include investigating neighborhood resources for making, selling, preserving, and caring for food and clothing.

These topics lend themselves to a beginning study of regionalism. Children can understand how and why certain regions of the United States and the world furnish certain foods and clothing materials. They learn how these products reach their own community from far away. Thus children expand their concepts of size, distance, and direction in the world. In this way they build the basis for the study of geography and the study of maps and globes.

How To Keep Healthy and Safe in Our Community. Children are naturally interested in problems relating to their own health and safety. These are topics in which all individuals, adults as well as children, face recurring life situations.

Special emphasis should be placed on topics which have significance in a particular community or class. All topics should be treated from the viewpoint of their direct influence on the daily lives of children. However, since historical aspects of these topics are also of interest to young children, they will be eager to learn how children in earlier times in America tried to keep safe and healthy. In similar fashion, the teacher can include reference to these problems as they are met in other places in the world today.

Children in these grades need to learn facts and concepts that will help them assume a greater share of responsibility in caring for their own health and safety. At the same time, the concept of people's interdependence and responsibility in the community can be reinforced.

Transportation and Communication in Our Community. These topics lend themselves to the development of many common experiences and related learnings. In developing such a unit, the teacher should select a few important facts, concepts, and generalizations which she wants young children to understand in a simple way. In developing these concepts, facts, and generalizations she employs concrete experiences as far as possible. However, with older children in the second and third grades, the teacher introduces some geographic concepts of time, place and distance. Both topics lend themselves to the natural introduction of simple historical facts and concepts through a comparison of transportation and communication today with long ago.

Holidays and Festivals We Celebrate. The observance of holidays and festivals is included as part of the social studies program for several reasons. Holidays are a way of introducing young children to their American heritage and to the culture of their country. Holidays give children a sense of belonging and an opportunity to act as part of a group celebrating an idea or a tradition. Holidays give children an opportunity to identify with people and ideals associated with the history of their country. The exact significance of a holiday may not be clear to children until they are older, but this fact does not interfere with the value of the observance.

If a holiday has patriotic significance, a simple but accurate account of the story should be told or read by the teacher. The holiday should not be fictionalized, though the legends associated with some of our historic figures may be told as long as they are identified as "stories." The political and philosophical aspects of historical events should be reserved for study with older children.

Holidays and festivals of a religious or international significance are often observed in order to help young children understand the culture of other people, places, and times. In the case of holidays with lighter significance, the symbols and practices associated with various days are often appropriate topics for young children. Thus Mother's Day or Valentine's Day express affection and appreciation. Halloween offers opportunities to learn what behavior is acceptable in the community. Arbor Day introduces the idea of conservation.

How People Live in Other Climates. This topic will help children understand something about the way people live in environments very different from their own. It should give them some understanding of the problems which other people face in their daily living. It should help them to understand how climate often influences the way people live.

As they learn how people in different environments dress, feed and house themselves, how they travel and communicate, and how children play and are educated, American children can begin to make some generalizations about the influence of environment on people's lives. Acquaintance with several different regions provides a beginning concept of the great variety of climates and resources found in the world.

It is important, however, to refrain from drawing stereotyped generalizations about people in different parts of the world. Though it is obvious that people live differently in a very cold climate from the way they live on a hot desert or in a tropical rain forest, children can be helped to see that man now has means to alter his geographic environment. The old and now inaccurate picture of the Eskimo always living in an igloo, or the savage always living in a thatched hut in the jungle must be altered. This is more easily done today because young children have resources in children's current reference materials, as well as in television, which show them life as it is being lived right now all over the world.

This topic can help children see how modern inventions and scientific discoveries have helped people live better all over the world. It can show them that though climate and other environmental factors are still strong influences on man's way of life these can be altered and improved.

How Indians Lived Long Ago. The story of Indian life in America has great appeal for young children. Many children enjoy identifying themselves with Indians through games, dramatic play, and programs they watch on television. Though few localities in the United States (especially urban communities) contain relics of Indian days, there is much to be seen in local museums and much to be read about in children's books and encyclopedias. The story of Indians in America is an excellent way to introduce children to the real story of American history and to give them a beginning toward understanding time and time sequence.

Children should understand that to some extent Indians who lived in early America had natural resources and an environment similiar in some ways to those which children now experience. Many of the rivers, mountains, and even woodlands are similar to the environment which was familiar to Indians. At the same time, children should be helped to visualize the great changes in landscape that have taken place since the Indians lived on the plains and in the woodlands.

After a study of the lives of local Indian tribes associated with their own locality, children should extend their study to Indians who lived in other parts of our country. In this way they will begin to understand the influence of environment of the ways in which people lived long ago, and they will begin to understand how man adapts himself to his environment, and ultimately changes it.

SOCIAL STUDIES IN GRADES FOUR, FIVE, AND SIX

By the time boys and girls reach the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades the emphasis in social studies shifts from the purely local community to the State, the region, the United States, and the world. The concept of interdependence continues to be important in these grades as it was in the first three years. However, children should be helped to understand the differences among countries as well as the interdependence of various regions of this country and the world. They should recognize that life everywhere is shaped in part by the history of the people and the geography of the land.

History and Geography in Grades Four, Five, and Six

History in these grades is still somewhat informal and storylike. However, even in the fourth grade, chronological as well as topical history can be utilized. Cause and effect relationships as well as time sequence should be introduced, so that children can learn to look for the reasons behind historical events. The history deals largely with famous people and important events and with the everyday activities of people who lived in America in earlier times and who contributed to the growth of our country.

The geography for grades four, five, and six emphasizes the way people live and the modifications made by climate and other environmental factors. Children thus become acquainted with unfamiliar regions of their own country and with the varied cultures of countries other than their own. They find that no matter how far apart people live they are being brought closer together by modern means of transportation and communication.

Daily Experiences in the Classroom and the School

Since desirable habits, attitudes, and concepts are usually learned by "doing," and since children's understanding of democracy is best demonstrated by the way they live, their in-and-out of school activities provide valuable content for the social studies program too.

Opportunities for daily experiences and activities in democratic living arise throughout the school day. For example, a class election will take place. An assembly program must be planned for a patriotic holiday. A committee for carrying out a specific class responsibility needs to be organized. A trip to a museum or a place of historic interest must be arranged. In addition, upper elementary school children have the opportunity to serve their school and to share experiences within a large school group. Children at this age level are called upon to perform many services which help the school function effectively.

Current Affairs

Fourth, fifth, and sixth grade children have a keen interest in the news of the world and in people near and far. At this age, children are better able to understand major events which occur far away if they are related to their social studies topics and to their own lives. The social studies program provides ample opportunity for discussing current events even though fourth, fifth, and sixth graders may not be able fully to comprehend the historical, political, economic, and geographic significance of a particular news event. A remote or heretofore obscure region anywhere in the world may suddenly become important in the news. Time spent on discussing the background of a news event which occurs thousands of miles away is not wasted if it helps children understand their own relationship to other parts of the world.

Topics for Grades Four, Five, and Six

Social studies topics in grades four, five, and six include the following:

How People Live and Work in States and Regions of the United States. By the time children reach the fourth grade they are ready to expand their study of the community to the larger community beyond the town or city. Thus in many schools, children are introduced to their own state and region of the United States at this time.

Now children are able to recognize and use a simple map of the United States, a map of the world, and a globe. They should learn to identify their own country and the larger land and water masses on a world map or globe. They have begun to acquire an understanding of the cardinal directions and some concept of size and distance on the earth. Children are now ready to identify their own state on a map and to relate it to their region and the United States.

Through a study of their state and region, children can learn about similarities and differences in land, climate, and people in other parts of the United States as well as in their own state. Through their study they begin to understand the influence of natural environment on people's lives. At the same time they can see that man, through science and invention, has overcome many of the environmental factors which in the past have greatly influenced his way of life.

In some schools the geography of the United States is taught regionally in the fourth grade. In other schools it is taught as part of the fifth grade social studies.

Discovering and Exploring the New World. Stories connected with discovery and exploration in the new world can become exciting experiences for children in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. Through such stories children are introduced to world history and geography. This topic more than any other in the social studies can help children understand the importance of cause and effect on the development of the United States and the Western Hemisphere.

Children should understand the reasons which led to the age of exploration and discovery and the motives which prompted early explorers to brave the dangers of unknown oceans and strange lands. Children should appreciate that many of the ideas, customs, languages, and religions which early explorers brought to the new world have influenced some of our present-day institutions, geographic place names, languages, and ideas.

This topic is ideal for the development of map skills. World maps of long ago contrasted with present-day maps will help children appreciate how our knowledge of the earth has expanded. Changes in our concepts of distance and time can be emphasized by contrasts between travel long ago and global travel today. This topic can be useful in introducing latitude and longitude.

How the American Colonists Lived. The reasons which brought the early colonists to America can be readily understood by fifth and sixth grade children. The desire of the early colonists to escape from Europe because of political tyranny, social inequality, religious persecution, and lack of economic opportunity can be related to current changes in many parts of the world today. Children should be helped to see that the concept of democracy had its roots in history and that the growth of the American democratic ideal has been continuous though gradual.

The story of colonial life in America can be made real for elementary school children by relating it to their own lives and the way people today live and adjust to their environment all over the world. Life in a New England village, a Virginia plantation, or a colonial city such as New York, Boston, or Philadelphia can become vivid if related to the lives of people in those times and places. Children enjoy learning how people lived; why they lived where they did; how they travelled; what their homes were like; where children went to school; how people dressed; how they made a living; their amusements, arts, religions, and so forth.

Geographic learnings and map skills should be emphasized in this topic. Physical maps of the North American Continent, the United States, and the eastern seaboard should be referred to frequently when studying colonial life. Children should become familiar with the importance of climate, rivers, mountains, soil, water power, mineral resources, latitude, and nearness to the sea. In this way the effects of geography on the settlement and growth of the colonies and on the way people lived in different places will be understood.

How the Colonies Won Their Independence. The American Revolution was in reality a conflict between people who sought government based on the principles of democracy and those who believed in the authority of kings. Through their belief in their rights and through their willingness to sacrifice everything for this ideal, the American colonists laid the foundation for our American way of life today.

The War for Independence can be taught to elementary school children through the stories of great men and women who took part in that struggle, through stories of stirring events, and through stories connected with famous historical documents. Children should be helped to see that the colonists prized their freedom and way of life so highly that they were willing to go to war with their mother country to maintain it.

How Our Government Was Established. For elementary school children, the establishment of the new nation and the story of the Constitution are best taught through the lives of great people and the stirring events of the early republic. The Constitution and the Bill of Rights can be treated as living documents, even for young children. Important current events which relate to provisions in the Constitution and Bill of Rights are often mentioned in newspapers, news magazines, on radio and television, and in the weekly pupil publications used in many classrooms. By selecting and discussing current events within the comprehension of elementary school children, both documents can become living, functioning influences on the lives of people today.

How We Opened Up the West. Interest in pioneer life and the West is natural for children in the elementary grades. They never tire of the stories of great trail blazers who explored, fought for, and settled the land from the Appalachians to the Pacific. The hardships of frontier life should help children appreciate the character of these pioneer people. The struggle of the settlers to overcome obstacles—mountains to cross, rivers to ford, wild animals and Indians to fight, the struggle to clear land and raise food, the care of the sick and the education of the young, the problem of building shelters against the cold of winter—will help children appreciate the saga of the westward movement.

In studying about this westward migration children should understand the reasons which inspired people to leave the safe, well-populated East or Europe in order to risk their lives on the frontier. By reviewing the motives which inspired the earlier explorers and the first settlers to come to America, children will understand the motives behind the whole westward movement. They will recognize that similar reasons today often bring about movements of large numbers of people who seek new homes in far off places—the desire for economic betterment, the search for land of their own, the need to escape oppression, the urge to seek wealth and adventure.

Children can also be helped to see that the westward movement began when the first settlers came to the Atlantic coast; and that it continued steadily with each succeeding generation until all the land from the Atlantic to the Pacific was settled.

The North and South Divided. Children should recognize that nations, like people, pass through times of crisis, trouble, and sorrow. For the United States, the period centering around the Civil War was such a time. Children should understand that the quarrel which ended in the Civil War started long before 1861 and was based on such fundamental issues as slavery, states' rights, the tariff, and the different economy of different regions of our country.

The history of slavery and its relationship to states' rights can be understood by elementary school children. Even the tariff question, if explained in simple terms, will help children understand the underlying differences between the North and the South at that time.

As with other topics in the elementary grades, the story of people who influenced the history of the nation should be stressed. Geographic learnings should be related to this topic wherever possible. Finally, the South today can be studied through the changes which have taken place in industry and through the social changes which have resulted from new attitudes, new laws, and new interpretations of the law. Map study and current events should play an important part in this.

How People Live and Work in Other Parts of the World. This topic provides a good opportunity to introduce world geography in the elementary grades. However, teachers should remember that an intensive study of world geography is often reserved for the junior high school or high school grades. For elementary school children the emphasis should be on people and their relationship to their environment rather than on purely political, economic, or historical geography. Climatic and geographic influences can be studied on a regional, a continental, or a cultural basis rather than through the detailed study of individual countries. However, individual countries or regions should be selected for more intensive study when they assume importance in current events.

How Americans Developed a Great Nation. In many ways Americans live more comfortably than any other people on the earth. We have more food and clothing, more luxuries, and more time for the good things of life. In few other countries do so many people enjoy such a high standard of living. How can we help young children to understand the reasons for our good fortune?

First of all children should appreciate that the United States has a heritage and a long history of democratic government. They should understand that our country is made up of people from many parts of the world, and that each group which came to the United States contributed something to the worth of the nation. Invention has also been a powerful force in changing and improving our way of life. Children should be helped to see that inventions and scientific discoveries are the work of many people building on the ideas of those who preceded them all over the world.

The enormous variety of natural resources in the United States is another reason for the growth of the nation. Children can see that every part of our great land contributes something of value to the nation and the world.

Social studies in the elementary grades usually includes one or more topics dealing with the industrial, social, and economic growth of the United States. However, elementary school teachers recognize that an intensive study of these topics is usually reserved for the junior high school or high school social studies. In the elementary grades children should acquire some of the basic understandings which will help them understand the reasons for the growth of our great nation. Throughout the study of this general area, whether in one or more units, the focus continues to be on people. Thus children will become familiar with some of the great inventors, leaders in social and industrial development, scientists, and so forth.

How We Have Worked for a Better World. The story of the United Nations can serve as one basis for this topic. However, for elementary school children only limited emphasis should be placed on the structure of the UN; much more emphasis should be placed on those activities which relate closely to children's interests. Thus the dramatic work of such specialized agencies as UNICEF and WHO can be studied through their work for people, especially children.

The activities of the American Red Cross and the Junior Red Cross are important for children to understand. America's participation in the work of such agencies will help children appreciate the role played by the United States in working for a better world and will begin to impress children with their own responsibility toward this end.

Though this topic is included with suggested topics for grades four through six, teachers in the first three years will also find opportunities to stress the concept of interdependence and responsibility for the welfare of people all over the world with children in K-3. Like older children, they will be interested in the activities of the Scouts, the Junior Red Cross, Community Chest drives, UNICEF collections at Halloween and similar experiences. The selection of suitable current events for discussion in class is an excellent way to develop the concept of world understanding.

CHAPTER IV

Trends in Organization of the Social Studies

Ruth Ellsworth

INTERDISCIPLINARY ORGANIZATION RATHER THAN SEPARATE SUBJECTS

SOCIAL studies programs in elementary schools across the nation are continuing to be built with learning experiences which utilize materials from the various disciplines of the social sciences rather than to be taught as separate subjects such as history and geography. The trend of more than 25 years appears to be continuing. Shane, after a survey of how certain educational practices and conditions in school districts had been modified between 1949 to 1950 and 1959 to 1960, said, "The trend toward teaching related subject matter in relationship (for instance, combining or correlating separate classes in history and geography as 'social studies') has continued to find wide acceptance." The evidence in this study was gathered from 183 respondents including 29 superintendents selected as "nationally recognized leaders" in the United States and 154 administrators chosen as a random sample in the state of Illinois. Two million pupils were being educated in the schools represented by the 183 respondents.[1]

An informal study by the writer of recent curriculum guides from 15 states ranging from the East coast to the West coast and from North to South in the United States shows that all of the school systems producing these recent guides have programs which include materials from the various social science disciplines in a fused or integrated course in social studies. In fact, many of the guides indicate relatively little attention to the discrete disciplines, but rather a drawing of materials needed by children in studying their communities, their states, the nation, regions, cultures, areas, social functions and processes, or social problem areas.

A noticeable and important trend is the broadening scope of materials included in elementary social studies curriculums. Traditionally history, geography, and political science have been the disciplines most frequently drawn upon. Now sociology, economics, and anthropology are recognized by many curriculum builders as essential. Still more disciplines are included by some school systems. For example, the new Sacramento County Course of Study, based upon the California state-wide framework developed as a guide to local districts, lists the social science areas of knowledge tapped for data for the social studies as geography, history, political science, economics, sociology, anthropology, psychology, and philosophy.[2] Data from psychology and philosophy are also included in some other curriculum plans.

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[1] Shane, Harold G. "Elementary Schools Changed Only a Little During Fabulous Fifties." *The Nation's Schools* 65:71-73 and 146-48; April 1960.

It will be interesting to note the impact of the current renewed and intensified attention by many educators in this country to the statements made by academicians of the major findings of scholars in their disciplines and the implications of these findings for social studies curriculums in elementary and secondary schools. As the academicians are included more directly in planning social studies curriculum for schools, it may be they will carry into the schools their greater awareness of their own separate disciplines as independently important. Present concern for the structure and methodology of the individual disciplines may have an impact upon school curriculums. It is probably too soon to know, because the closer cooperation between the academicians and the school people is a relatively recent emphasis.

ORGANIZATION BY TEXTBOOK WANING

Any survey of the organization of social studies curriculums in the elementary school must take into account the fact that for many school systems the organization is determined by the textbooks chosen. Indeed, even in curriculum guides one occasionally finds a statement that the guide has been prepared to help teachers in the use of the textbooks adopted by the state or local school systems. However, most guides assume the use of a variety of books as well as other instructional materials. Certain observers of the educational scene reporting in national journals indicate that the single textbook is a less important determiner of curriculum content and organization than it used to be. Murfin, reporting on 40 years of change in the elementary school, says, "The single textbook 'read and recite' lesson has widely given way and the library has become the center of more elementary schools."[3]

INTEGRATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES AND OTHER SUBJECTS

The trend toward greater integration of subject matter from many different subjects is apparent in reports of much recent curriculum work in the schools. The close relationship between social studies and science are apparent as many teachers work on meaningful learning experiences for children. An interesting example of such integration of materials comes from Springfield, Missouri, where the physical and social sciences are organized and presented through the social-function pattern. The guide states, "The material is organized in a correlated body, with the belief that geography, history, citizenship, science, health, and safety, thus presented, will afford many more opportunities for learning by doing and for developing concepts necessary for successful living in our society." The curriculum guide offers an interesting outline of content which is so organized that an individual teacher may use the materials from science and the social studies either in an integrated fashion or separately depending upon his abilities and philosophy.

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[2] Sacramento County Board of Education. *Social Studies-Science Course of Study.* Sacramento: Office of the Superintendent of Schools, Sacramento County, 1960. p. 11.

[3] Murfin, Mark. "Forty Years of Change in the Elementary School." *National Elementary Principal* 40:11; February 1961.

Perhaps two examples might give meaning to the plan for integration of science and social studies materials. One is the area of protecting life and health. Children study the importance of proper diet and good health habits as well as studying scientists like Pasteur, Salk, and Burbank who have contributed to health. They study community agencies such as the Red Cross, the Crippled Children's Clinic, etc. They also study the importance of cleanliness (1) in the environment, (2) in food, and (3) of the body, and the provisions by governments for protecting life and health, such as prevention and control of diseases, school health and safety, and health provisions of city, county, state, and national governments. A second area of study—conservation and use of the physical environment—offers opportunity for studies in both science and social studies. The physical environment is studied—the effect of weather conditions, use of earth surface for meeting the needs of life, and how to conserve natural resources by protecting wildlife, conserving soil, respecting all life, and caring for yards and gardens.[4]

The close relationship between science and social studies subject matter and the need to use the two together to achieve certain kinds of understanding have led Sacramento County to produce a Social Studies-Science Guide. The rationale is clearly explained and is challenging. It is acknowledged that in children's thinking science and social studies merge naturally, and that the history of man reveals a similar parallel as discoveries such as fire, the wheel, and printing have pushed man from one level of civilization to another. The timeliness of the plan is thus stated:

> The second quarter of this century has been the most productive man

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[4] *Springfield Public Schools. Social Studies; Science (elementary level).* Instructional Guidelines, Bulletin Number 6. Springfield, Missouri: Springfield Public Schools, 1956. p. 9-37.

> has ever known in the area of scientific invention, discovery, and developments. But the result has been to increase the number of complex social problems for people everywhere. Problems are being created faster than people and their governments can resolve them. Social studies help pupils understand these and work toward solutions which will reduce the gap between scientific advances and social arrangements necessary to use them for the general welfare. . . .
>
> Science learnings increase the depth of understanding in many social studies areas and the learnings of both fields should be brought together when the science knowledge is essential for comprehending the relationships and developing the big ideas or generalizations. For instance in the study of how man preserves, uses, or abuses natural resources both science and social studies are subject matter. . . . In a study such as this, the two areas need each other and cannot be easily separated.[5]

Another school system which recognizes the necessity for integrating materials from various areas of curriculum with social studies materials is the Sacramento City Unified School District in California. Material from geography, history, and civics is related and taught in units of work, but the close relationship between these areas and other areas of the curriculum is also recognized. Teachers are given many specific helpful suggestions in the curriculum guides for integrating materials children study. In fact, the statement is made, "The social studies program cannot be separated from the rest of the school curriculum. Since we are aware of this, we must consider how the other subjects can contribute to the social studies program."[6] Following the last statement are explanations for art, music, physical education, science, the library, the language arts, and audio-visual materials indicating how each one of these contributes to the social studies program. The statement concerning music is illustrative:

> Music has significant potentialities for the enrichment of learning in the social studies program.
>
> Throughout the centuries music has been a vital part of civilization. Songs, dances, and the development of musical instruments are a part of the history of every race. A study of any culture cannot be complete without an interpretation of the music which reflects that particular culture. Conscious associations of music with the social, political, religious, and cultural life of a race will extend and deepen meanings.
>
> Through singing the songs and dancing the dances indigenous to the culture of a period and a race, a child will better understand the history and culture of his country. Broader experience in recreation stimulates creative activities in music.[7]

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[5] Sacramento County Board of Education. *Op. cit.* p. 21.

[6] Sacramento City Unified School District. *Course of Study for Fifth Grade Social Studies.* Sacramento, California: Sacramento City Unified School District, 1956. p. 19.

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 23.

As a part of each unit of study, suggestions are listed of activities and learning experiences and of materials such as books, songs, recordings, filmstrips, construction materials, and dances.

A more extensive integration of materials from various subject areas is represented in the core curriculum plan of some schools. Relatively few curriculum guides seem to indicate such a plan, but some schools have made headway in thus extending the integration of subject materials. An example of such a plan is that of the Grosse Pointe Public Schools. The program is described in this way,

> . . . we cannot continue to think in terms of geography, history, oral or written English, etc., as separate subject areas more or less artificially thrown together into a larger time block and yet maintaining their separate identity. . . .
>
> Thus the sort of core curriculum which we are seeking in Grosse Pointe is a series of learning experiences centered about a focal point of interest called the 'core.' Within its organization no particular attention is to be paid to the artificial boundaries of various subject matter areas. The emphasis is upon a highly diversified series of activities which will fuse the learning as it will naturally be used by the child.
>
> While we have recognized that there are numerous organizational possibilities, the social studies have seemed to us as providing the most natural and meaningful center around which to build these integrated units of work. . . .
>
> The core curriculum is primarily a fusion of curriculum areas seeking through the integration of experiences to facilitate the educational growth of Grosse Pointe boys and girls.[8]

Time is provided within the school day for Grosse Pointe children for social education or "social growth through effective daily living." Not merely the pupil's growth in academic achievement is emphasized, but also his adjustment in the real situations in which he finds himself with his peers. The central and unifying theme in the social studies program is the way people live together in groups throughout the world.

SCOPE AND SEQUENCE OF PROGRAMS

The scope of social studies programs in elementary schools in this nation can be said to be faithful to Alexander Pope's statement, "The proper study of mankind is man." The social studies are primarily concerned with the study of man and his relationships with his environment, both physical and social, as he satisfies his basic needs. Typically, school systems define the objectives of the programs as (1) to help children understand their world, (2) to help them understand the role of the individual in this world, and (3) to help them learn to take their place productively in this world. In other words, it is stated that the social studies program should provide opportunity for children to understand and improve their social and physical environment as well as making their own behavior more socially responsible.

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[8] Department of Instruction. *Teachers' Guide to Curriculum Planning in the Grosse Pointe Elementary Schools.* Fourth edition. Grosse Pointe, Michigan: Grosse Pointe Public School System, 1959. p. 3-4.

Scope—Social Functions or Social Processes

The scope of the subject matter of the program is usually defined as including the basic social functions of people or the social processes. It is believed that an understanding of the functions of man in every society should lead to a better understanding of that society. The basic activities of man are listed as such:

1. Protecting and conserving life, health, resources, and property.
2. Producing, distributing and consuming food, clothing, shelter, and services.
3. Creating and producing tools and techniques.
4. Transporting people and goods.
5. Communicating ideas, information, and feelings.
6. Providing an education.
7. Providing for and participating in recreational activities.
8. Organizing and governing groups of people.
9. Expressing aesthetic and spiritual impulses.[9]

Another statement of scope follows:

> The social studies are concerned with man's relationships with his fellow man, his patterns of life and work, and the influence of historical backgrounds and environment upon his way of life. The knowledge, understandings, appreciations and skills needed by the individual to function as a member of a democratic society may be developed to a great extent through the social studies curriculum.
>
> The social studies program is broad in scope. It is designed to satisfy and expand the child's interest in his world; to meet his basic human needs; to advance him, as far as he is capable, in the maturation process; and to encourage him to become a contributing member of a democratic society.[10]

Curriculum plans organized upon the basis of persistent life situations, developmental tasks, or real life problems appear to be fewer in number than those utilizing the social functions or the social processes approach. However, many school systems encourage teachers to plan with children for using "a problem solving approach" to the study of their social studies material.

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[9] St. Paul Public Schools. *Social Studies for Elementary School Children.* Curriculum Bulletin Number 71. St. Paul, Minnesota: St. Paul Public Schools, 1959. p. 4.

[10] Board of Education. *Social Studies Tentative Guide, Kindergarten-Grade Seven.* Rochester, New York: Board of Education, 1957. p. 5.

Expanding-Environment Plan

The most predominant plan for achieving sequence in social studies subject matter in the elementary school continues to be the expanding-environment or expanding-horizons plan for sequential organization. This plan is based upon the assumption that a young child's life-space includes primarily his family, school, and neighborhood, and that, with developing maturity, his interests and experiences take him into the wider community of his city, state, and eventually the nation and the world. Children's study under this plan moves from the immediate environment to the more remote. Thus, in the great majority of school systems children in kindergarten and the first grade study living in the home and in the school. The second grade work involves a study of living together in the school neighborhood. In the third grade children concentrate on their local community: town, village, city, or rural area. In some cases, there is a comparative study of living in different communities, either in this country or in other parts of the world. In some cases, this study continues into the fourth grade, but frequently fourth graders are involved in studying life in their state. In the fifth grade children usually progress to a study of their nation and the Americas, frequently both historical and present-day. Sometimes a regional study of our whole country is involved at this point. In the sixth grade children move into a study of the Western Hemisphere, their neighbors in the Americas, and eventually a study of the world.

Even though the expanding-environment plan for achieving sequence in learning experiences in social studies in the elementary school is very widely followed in general, there are many variations of the plan from school system to school system. For example, in the primary grades many children study additional units such as caring for pets and toys, visits to the circus, life on a farm, children around the world, etc. Indians are still studied by many children in second or third grade. Many curriculum planners recognize that children's experiences do not focus exclusively on one area at a time, but they plan the expanding-environment sequence as a means of seeing to it that important areas of study are not left out of the elementary school curriculum. However, they plan for flexibility within the general framework.

Recurring Cycles of Content

There is also growing recognition that children's study of any area should not be limited to a particular grade level. It is inconceivable, for example, that the level of understanding of community services should be forever that of a seven-year-old, achieved through a study of community services in the second grade. That, however, is a natural consequence of the traditional placement of certain subject matter at one grade level. Various plans are being devised for insuring that the study of any major area of content will be continued at least periodically so that each child's knowledge and understanding is extended and deepened through the years. Some school systems plan recurring cycles of instruction in which there is a return to a study of a particular area of content at a broader and higher level of study.

There are also some examples of curriculum plans which include attention to each of several areas of study each year of a child's life. For example, one guide identifies four major areas of study: community, social processes, geography, history. Study topics in each of the four areas are indicated for each grade level from kindergarten through grade six, except for geography which begins in grade three. For example, in the area of social processes, kindergarteners study such topics as, "We Raise Plants" and "The Filling Station." First graders work on "Pets" and "Transportation by Train." Second graders' topics are "Animals in Winter" and "Air Age Helpers." In the third grade are such topics as "Transportation by Boats," "Lumbering," "The Post Office." In the fourth grade are "A Wheat Farm," "Inventors," etc. Grade five includes topics such as "Saving Soil and Water," and "Mixed Farming." And "Radio and Television" and "Living with Synthetics" are two of the topics included in the sixth grade.[11] In this way each major area of study is worked on each year. A similar effort to include some study of the state at each level is indicated in a booklet published in Kansas which includes suggested content, organization, and activities for study of Kansas in each grade from first through eighth.[12]

Major Generalizations

There is a good deal of evidence of another major and very promising trend in the organization of the instructional program. It follows from a reconsideration of the goals of social studies education, the achievement of which the organization is designed to insure. It is recognized that the extent of human knowledge is too great to be mastered by any one person, but that it is important that all people understand the major ideas developed through the ages. So more and more scholars are being asked to define the most important learnings formulated from research in their disciplines. These generalizations then indicate the scope of social studies in the curriculum around which learning experiences are designed and organized. Obviously, much information has to be worked with in order for each learner to arrive, through many experiences, at the generalizations.

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[11] Grand Island Public Schools. *Elementary Social Studies*. Supplement Number 1. Resource Units for Teachers. Grand Island, Nebraska: Grand Island Public Schools, 1956. 262 p.

[12] State Department of Public Instruction in Cooperation with the Kansas Centennial Commission. *The Sunflower State*. A Teacher's Guide for the Study of Kansas, Grades 1 to 8. Topeka, Kansas: State Department of Public Instruction, 1960. 63 p.

In the recent state-wide curriculum study in California this procedure has been followed. Generalizations, arrived at in this way, serve as goals of the social studies. Eighteen generalizations have been used to define the scope of the social studies for Sacramento County. A few of the generalizations follow:

> *The culture under which an individual is reared* and the social groups to which he belongs *exert great influence* on his ways of perceiving, thinking, feeling, and acting.
>
> *The basic substance of a society is rooted in its values;* assessing the nature of its values is the most persistent and important problem faced by human beings.
>
> *The work of society is carried out through organized groups;* group membership involves opportunities, responsibilities, and the development of leadership.[13]

Curriculum workers in St. Paul, Minnesota, have defined as basic learnings the broad generalizations or understandings which are important for democratic citizens. They recognize also that these represent major problem areas in which modern man is continually attempting to find solutions and, therefore, they are important goals toward which school learning experiences should be directed. These basic learnings are grouped into four general statements: (1) People are interdependent and need to live in harmony. (2) Man's environment influences his way of living. (3) Living can be improved. (4) People of the past influenced our way of living. At each grade level in the curriculum plan, more specific goals are defined. Toward these goals specific learnings are selected as having meaning for children at various periods of maturity. From grade to grade, two factors are noticed; one, that there is constant reinforcement of learnings which have hopefully been secured by children in earlier grades, and two, that there is a constant expansion and refinement of the generalizations defined as goals into generalizations which are broader and more comprehensive and meaningful to more mature young people. For example, a specific basic learning for young children, six-year-olds, is stated, "Living in school improves when everyone carries out his responsibilities." For nine-year-olds, a suitable generalization is indicated as, "When people live together in groups, they must have rules to follow for the benefit of all." Ten-year-olds are thought capable of learning that: "Problems of living in our nation are the responsibilities of all citizens." "The more people share the physical and human resources of our country, the better will be our way of life." It is planned that eleven-year-olds will be able to comprehend more difficult generalizations such as: "Improvements in the ways of living solve some problems and often create others." "In many places in the world, freedom and the worth of the individual human being have not been achieved."[14]

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[13] Sacramento County Board of Education. *Op. cit.*, p. 127-29.

Another example of the attention to the sequential development of values and concepts for creative living is that given in the curriculum guide for Port Arthur, Texas. Ten concepts reflecting many facets of a democratic society as it is known in America are defined. The significant feature is that illustrative examples of activities for attaining each of the objectves are given for each of four levels of the school: primary, intermediate, junior high, and senior high. Several activities are suggested at each level to help in the development of each objective.[15]

Strands of Behavioral Goals—Skills

More and more teachers and administrators seem to be defining the goals of the social studies program in behavioral terms as well as in terms of subject matter content to be mastered. A major trend in the organization of social studies programs is discernible in the planning for sequential attention to skill mastery and the development of values. The intent is to emphasize constantly these elements which are fundamental to the unity of the social studies program. These learnings cannot be achieved at just one grade level but must be sought through a sequence of many experiences throughout the grades. All major strands in social development are worked on throughout the child's school life. For example, Aberdeen teachers and administrators, after exploring the growth characteristics of children and the opinions of pupils, parents, and lay groups, compiled twelve broad goals defined in terms of behavioral changes in the learner and published as *Goals for Action*. These broad goals include health; basic skills; successful social relationships; citizenship; self-realization; vocational efficiency; creative endeavor; home living; enjoyment of life; economic competence; ethical, moral, and spiritual values; and understanding environment. Each one is stated as a broad behavioral goal, and then specific behaviors are indicated for each broad goal. In an effort to insure that the broad goals will not simply be paid reverence and then forgotten in the everyday work of the classroom, a unit pattern sheet was devised with five parallel divisions so that running parallel in the plan are (1) the subject matter outline, (2) the five threads of behavioral goals, (3) skills to be taught, (4) learning experiences by which the goals may be reached and the skills developed, and (5) teaching aids. Specific behavioral goals are indicated along with specific subject matter and skills in the hope that the learning experiences will achieve both mastery of subject matter and achievement of changes in behavior in the other areas indicated.[16]

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[14] St. Paul Public Schools. *Op. cit.*, 110 p.

[15] Port Arthur Public Schools. *Living and Learning in the Second Grade*. Port Arthur, Texas: Port Arthur Public Schools, 1959. p. 7a-17a.

Many school faculties working on curriculum improvement for their school systems appear to be recognizing that changes in behavior are not achieved incidentally along with the mastery of knowledge, but that provision for additional learning must be built into the organization of school experiences.

Some school systems are now building into their curriculum plan of organization analyses of skills needed in social education and enumeration of the emphases needed for continuous refinement and extension of these skills. A Chicago guide makes the following statement, "Three types of skills are enumerated for emphasis in each semester: map and globe skills, reading skills, and social skills. Growth in the skills should be continuous and, from the time they are introduced, it is expected that the work of each succeeding semester will extend their use and application. The skills are closely related to the content and the experiences but are not necessarily dependent upon them. At any time that children indicate readiness through interest or need for a particular skill, if it is within their intellectual grasp, the skill may be introduced."[17] Strands of the social studies program are then identified in the areas of concepts, values and ideals, and skills, and grade levels at which each specific concept, value, or skill can well be worked on are indicated. A detailed suggested sequence chart for map and globe skills is included, indicating points from kindergarten through grade eight at which specific skills can probably best be developed.

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[16] Aberdeen Public Schools. *Learning Through Action*. A Guide Book for Social Studies. Part I. Kindergarten-Primary Area. Aberdeen, South Dakota: Aberdeen Public Schools, 1954. 183 p.

[17] Chicago Public Schools. *Supplement to the Teaching Guide for Social Studies*. A Tentative Program for Grades 7 and 8. Chicago: Chicago Public Schools, 1959. p. 6.

Another guide contains an impressive analysis of study skills necessary in social studies. A comprehensive list of specific study skills is given sequentially with indications as to where such a skill is probably necessary to be introduced, the grade level at which reasonable competence can be expected, and that at which mastery should probably have been achieved in order for the student to do well with the work of the grade.[18]

A very comprehensive analysis of map and globe skills and understandings by grade levels from grade one through grade six is given in the Rochester, New York, Social Studies Guide. Specific skills are organized under such categories as location, direction, natural features, cultural features, measurement, special purpose maps, and time and seasons. At each grade level, activities are suggested through which children should be helped to develop the skills indicated. The statement is made,

> The social studies skills are developed gradually from the kindergarten through the grades. They should be introduced concretely and need to be re-introduced, reinforced and maintained throughout the child's elementary school experience. The rate of development will vary with each individual child. The teaching of the specific social studies skills is definitely planned in a sequential order. They should be taught and used when there is a functional purpose and when the child is mature enough to grasp the symbolic concepts. . . .
>
> The transition from the concrete to the abstract must be gradual and in a sequential orderly development: reality to pictures, to the semi-pictorial, to the abstract. Every opportunity to visualize reality must be given.[19]

The sequence of learning experiences is designed to take a child from a stage of becoming aware of a particular understanding of maps and globes and of their use to the ability to use them and the habit of using the needed skills.

Strands in Citizenship Education

Another organizing strand which many school systems are attempting to include in their programs is citizenship education. Perhaps attention to this phase of the social studies is a very necessary recognition at long last of the fact that no amount of knowledge or understanding or even skill makes human behavior more socially desirable unless the knowledge, understanding, and skill are applied in action. The improving of one's family life, school life, community life, national life, or world participation means putting knowledge, understanding, and skill into social action. Recognition of these facts is given in the Detroit curriculum guide, where the first of eleven present trends in the social studies listed and recommended is "democracy in practice as well as theory."[20]

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[18] Department of Instruction. Grosse Pointe Public School System. *Op. cit.*, p. 45-50.

[19] Board of Education, Rochester, New York. *Op. cit.*, p. 7-28.

The integration of citizenship with all classroom experiences is a major outcome of an extensive study of curriculum in the Chicago Public Schools. A committee for the social studies in the elementary school, formed from members of the Curriculum Council in 1957 to 1958 as part of a continuous program of curriculum development and evaluation, was made up of teachers and administrators from each section of the city and from schools of various sizes. This committee surveyed teacher opinions. The findings of the survey indicate, "Among the many valuable suggestions received from the hundreds of classroom teachers throughout the city, was the proposal to integrate various aspects of citizenship with all classroom experiences rather than to separate these learnings into special units. In the teachers' judgment, the skills, attitudes, and behaviors related to effective citizenship are a part of every learning experience and must be practiced in meaningful situations of everyday living.

In response to teachers' requests and in recognition of the need for a continuous program of citizenship, the committee has incorporated social-civic learnings into the topics for each grade level."[21]

This evidence from many school systems verifies another finding of the survey of school superintendents reported by Shane and referred to earlier in the chapter. The superintendents' future plans for curriculum change were thus reflected: "Here they aspired to put into effect well-balanced programs that emphasized the total development of the learner rather than mere intellectual growth in subject matter fields. Only three superintendents out of 183 said that their schools should be concerned solely with academic progress. The remainder, including all of the nationally-known leaders, hope that in the sixties their schools would accept more rather than less responsibility for the social, emotional and physical development of pupils." This statement reflected the future plans of the superintendents for curriculum change.[22]

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[20] Detroit Public Schools. *A Program of Social Studies Instruction,* Grades 1-12. Detroit: The Board of Education, 1961. p. 5.

[21] Chicago Public Schools. *Op. cit.,* p. 3.

[22] Shane. *Op. cit.,* p. 73.

Elementary and Secondary Programs Seen as a Whole

There is also a good deal of evidence that more and more school systems are looking at their goals for social studies education and their programs of learning experiences designed to help students achieve these goals as a whole program from kindergarten through senior high school. Many of the analyses of concepts, skills, and values as well as of knowledge and many outlines of subject matter to be used are viewed as a total program which must be sequentially developed and systematically pursued.

Flexibility of Plan for Individual Adaptation

One of the very encouraging trends in the organization of social studies programs in recent years is recognition of the need for a flexibility of plan to allow for and indeed provide for adaptation of system-wide plans to particular groups of students and even to individual students. Whereas there is continued recognition of the need for careful definition of expected outcomes of a program and of a master framework and guiding principles to help all teachers and students involved in study; nevertheless, there is increasing evidence of inviting individual variations on the master plan.

Large cities such as Chicago have recognized that the diversity of pupil population in the city requires adaptation of the city curriculum plan to the individual school and to the particular group of students. There is more recognition of the fact that learning is an individual matter. There is greater appreciation of the fact that neighborhood situations and school settings differ, that children differ, and that teachers differ, with the result that there is less uniformity on the part of teachers. In fact, in many recent curriculum guides, not only are units presented labeled resource units, but also they are labeled, "tentative for experimental use, evaluation, and modification." In fact, in some cases the so-called unit plan is really an organized group of suggestions for planning and teaching of units by an individual teacher.[23]

An interesting example of a guide which encourages and helps teachers to develop individuality in their work with children is that published by St. Paul Public Schools which includes a worksheet for planning and developing units. A section is provided for teachers to list basic learnings to be developed in the particular unit. There is also a section for checking basic skills to be used and developed and one to describe how the unit is to be initiated with specific suggestions to check. Then, in the section called "Pupils and Teacher Plan Together," there is a place for teachers to write in questions which may arouse discussion and then questions and ideas which children raise. The next section deals with organizing the class for action and includes a place to list the purposes, problems, and objectives of the children, their reasons for study, and the problems to be solved and the questions to be answered as a means of establishing committees and group work. There are suggested activities to be checked, some ideas for culminating experiences, a section for evaluation, and one for listing bibliography. This guide encourages and, in effect, demands creative thinking and planning by a teacher and group of students. It asks questions. In many school systems, teachers are asked to keep files of descriptive materials relating to experiences so that continuous improvement may result.[24]

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[23] See Curriculum Guides already referred to from Grosse Pointe, Michigan; Rochester, New York; Port Arthur, Texas; Aberdeen, South Dakota; Grand Island, Nebraska. See also San Bernardino County Board of Education. *Social Studies for Democracy's Children.* San Bernardino, California: Office of the Superintendent of Schools, 1955. 235 p.

However, teachers and administrators in a few school systems, at least, have taken an additional step and made up their curriculum guides not with resource units or synthetic units to be followed by teachers but rather with accounts of problems or units of study as they have been carried out by teachers and children and then written up. They are included in guides as samples of what can be done in the hope that other teachers will be stimulated to work thoughtfully in developing worthwhile, custom-made units of study with their children.[25] Believing that provision should be made whenever possible for the child to have learning experiences which grow out of his needs and concerns, to have a program of continuous development built upon past experiences, and to have an opportunity to participate in activities which utilize his uniqueness, the curriculum committee working on the content of learning experiences in Royal Oak encouraged all teachers to study the developmental growth pattern of their age group and develop learning experiences suited to these children. They then asked them to record descriptions of learning experiences which seemed to be most educational for children. The teachers wrote up a particular learning experience or a unit of study by telling how it began, what happened during the course of the study, what the objectives were or what the problem to be solved was, and how the experience came to a conclusion. Each teacher indicated by notations in the margin what goals of the program seemed to be served at various points during the experience.

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[24] St. Paul Public Schools. *Op. cit.*, p. 22-24.

[25] Springfield Public Schools. *Op. cit.*, and The Members of Royal Oak Workshop on Social Studies. *Our World of Living and Learning.* Royal Oak, Michigan: Royal Oak Public Schools, 1957. 145 p.

Local autonomy within a state-wide framework is the pattern in the case of the new social studies curriculum plan for the state of California. Robinson states, "Within this framework, which is amply explained and justified in the report, each school will construct its own course of study, with large area of freedom in the selection of materials and topics that will fulfill the intent of the framework."[26]

The Shane survey of 183 superintendents of schools, referred to earlier in the chapter, reinforces the observation that more curriculum plans and guides produced during the last few years are flexible in the ways and for the purposes discussed. Shane states, "Superintendents also reported that rigidly prescribed courses of study were less common than was the case a decade ago. Consequently, the use of more flexible types of teaching guides has increased."[27]

This flexibility in some schools leads to a considerably more responsible role for the individual student in making his own work plan which fits into the daily work plan for the group. Children are encouraged to discuss their plans in terms of things to do or things to find out and to review the daily progress of the unit and evaluate their own behavior and their progress in knowledge, understanding, and skill. Children are encouraged to keep plans and progress sheets indicating their own achievement. One group of teachers stated in their guide, "A child should be given many opportunities to make self-evaluations. He should learn to evaluate constructively for he will continue to evaluate himself throughout life. He must be helped to analyze his own strengths and weaknesses, his behavior, and his needs.

"Children always want to do things in a better way. They can be helped in their efforts by group discussions, samples of work gathered over a period of time, check lists, diaries, and charts. A teacher must help a child interpret these evaluation devices. Evaluation is only busy work if it does not lead to improvement."[28]

Murfin, in speaking of the last 40 years in elementary education stated, "Provision of a continuity of meaningful experiences for children based on interests, needs, abilities, and levels of achievement" has been a trend during the last 40 years from 1921 to 1961.[29] Some school systems include in their curriculum guides indications of suggested learning experiences best suited to gifted children or talented children and some possibilities for less able students. Relatively little evidence seems to be available as yet on the impact of cross-grade grouping, programs for the gifted, and the use of teaching machines and programmed instruction on the individualization of social studies programs in elementary schools.

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[26] Robinson, Donald W. "Social Studies Framework Is Landmark of Progress." *California Teachers Association Journal* 55:52-53; September 1959.

[27] Shane. *Op. cit.*, p. 72.

[28] The Members of Royal Oak Workshop on Social Studies. *Op. cit.*, p. 76.

[29] Murfin. *Op. cit.*, p. 10.

These trends in organization of the social studies programs seem to be moving in the direction of a realization that continuity in the learning process is actually achieved by each child and is realized in his development and behavior. He learns that for which he has the necessary elements of meaning, the awareness, and the motivation to attend, stemming from a need or an interest in mastering the material. He builds upon previous concepts and generalizations, broadening their meanings, and building new ones. This does not imply that a good curriculum plan does not facilitate each student's achievement of continuity in learning. But it does mean that within a framework each learner has to learn for himself, and that he must be guided in this effort by his teachers.

This trend seems to be taking educators in the direction of an ideal set by a group of 26 persons in conference in October 1960 who formulated a statement from the recommendations of the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth. They said, "Believing what it has long professed—that the curriculum should meet the needs of the individual child—the school gives freedom to the one person in the school who knows the child best—his teacher. Realizing that the child can move ahead only from the point where he is and therefore he, not the curriculum, provides the continuity in the learning process, the school asks the teacher to make the curriculum. True, the school provides a broad outline as a guide, but otherwise it leaves the teacher free to use his creative imagination and his intimate knowledge of his pupils and their backgrounds to build a curriculum that is rich and flexible enough to provide every child with challenging opportunities to learn."[30] Curriculum work, then, needs to be a combination of the building of an over-all plan and guide and individual teacher-and-child effort to use the plan creatively so that each learner achieves most fully his unique potential.

PROBLEMS IN ORGANIZATION

Many encouraging trends in the organization of elementary school social studies programs have been noted in this chapter. Many deficiencies, however, also exist and present curriculum workers with problems and issues still to be resolved in order to make programs truly effective. One such deficiency is the limitation of the expanding-environment or expanding-horizons plan of organization of materials which so generally prevails. While this pattern has merit, it disregards the influence of a closely knit world of rapid communication. Present-day reality is that the entire world comes into a child's life very early. Frequently, a child is more closely bound to and more vitally interested in Korea or Germany where his uncle or older brother or father is located than he is bound to a distant part of his own state. At times, he is better able to understand at an early age the life of another child in a far distant part of our own country living much as he lives than he is able to understand the life of another child in another culture group in another part of his own city. Familiarity, interest, and concern do not progress according to a neat series of concurrent rings from the child out into his world.

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[30] Staff of the Elementary Schools Section. "The Elementary School: A Composite Picture." *School Life* 43:13; January 1961.

A study of the interests of 715 children, grades one to six, in eastern Pennsylvania recently seems to confirm this point of view. The interests of these children did "not seem to be walled into grade areas." Many interests seemed to appear continuously throughout grades one to six in accord with the problems then dominating the local, national, and international scene and in accord with interest and information the children had secured from television, radio, movies, and travel. The investigator states, "Social studies interests of elementary school children appear to be elastic and to move from the community to the world scene as easily in the first grade as in the sixth."[31]

It appears that children must now be helped by their social studies program in school to learn systematically and to think critically about what is happening in their classroom, school, neighborhood, city, state, nation, world, and outer space concurrently all the time. These various environments or settings within which the child lives all the time concurrently may be thought of as settings which he must study continually throughout his life in order to gain an ever broader and deeper understanding of the meanings of them all. These may well form strands of learning which he pursues throughout school concentrating first on one, then on another, then on another, back to the first, etc., as need, opportunity, and interest, lead him on. In the Twelfth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies there was a report of a second grade unit of study extending over a year with periods of intense activity in which children studied their economy as it affected a second grader then left the study for a period of relative inactivity and then picked it up again later on to learn more.[32] This pattern seems to be a worthwhile one for most children. This assumes that teachers and administrators are continuing students of their world and of their students and that they work continuously at the job of curriculum improvement to meet the challenge of new human needs and altered conditions. Such teachers and administrators with their students can build a vital emerging curriculum.

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[31] McAulay, J. D. "Interests of Elementary School Children." *Social Education* 25:407-409; No. 8, December 1961.

It is apparent in reports of recent curriculum studies that many school faculties are finding the limitations of the expanding-environment or expanding-horizons pattern of curriculum organization and are experimenting with ways of working toward a more truly emerging curriculum which includes strands of study in all areas of human concern throughout the school program in accord with clearly defined objectives conceptualized in behavioral terms. The fact that some school faculties are describing objectives in behavioral terms and are finding ways of helping students achieve these objectives at various grade levels at an ever higher level of understanding and behavior is a very encouraging trend.

As long as the school conceived of its job as transmitting the cultural heritage to the young in a relatively stable society, subject matter could be defined and sliced up into packages of so much for each grade level and then studied. However, in the present world, in our time of the explosion of knowledge, when supposedly true facts become untrue because they are replaced by new facts, such a concept is outdated. For those of us who are watching the aircraft industry give way to aerospace it is apparent that a large part of the curriculum of the schools must be concerned with current developments. Mead has described our dilemma in a rapidly changing world extremely well in a recent article. At one point she states, "Thus we avoid facing the most vivid truth of the new age: *no one will live all his life in the world into which he was born, and no one will die in the world in which he worked in his maturity.*"[33]

It is somewhat disconcerting in surveying trends in elementary school social studies program organization to find so little apparent emphasis on the study of current happenings in our world. In this time in our world it would seem that a substantial part of the social studies program for children should be a study of current developments using the methodology of historical research to trace developments, seek underlying factors, investigate causes of current developments, and project next steps. This would be using the study of the past to understand the present and predict the future. Mead asks the question, "But is it not possible to think that an educational system that was designed to teach what was known to little children and to a selected few young men (after which they could be regarded as 'educated') may not fit a world in which the most important factors in everyone's life are those things that are not yet, but soon will be, known?"[34]

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[32] Fairbanks, Grace, and Helen Hay Heyl. "Teaching Social Studies in the Primary Grades: Activities Developing Economic Understandings." *The Social Studies in the Elementary School.* Twelfth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, a department of the National Education Association, 1941. p. 172-89.

[33] Mead, Margaret. "Thinking Ahead." *Harvard Business Review* 36:164-70; No. 6, November-December 1958.

It is encouraging to know that some school systems are emphasizing current happenings and are suggesting that teachers capitalize on current interests both by incorporating these as units into the regular program and by studying current events connected with each unit of study and with any other important interests of the school or the class. Encouragement for teachers interested in improving study of current events in the elementary school comes from a careful study carried on for a year at the University Experimental School at the State University of Iowa to assess the apparent values and problems attendant to a directed program of teaching current events at the elementary school level. In summarizing the findings of the study, Smith states, "The current events program, properly carried out, stands to provide the most important link between gaining new knowledge and the application of that knowledge to something which is immediately important. Within the program, too, can be developed the process of learning how to think critically and to judge realistically how the world works. For many years, current events appear to have been thought of as a part, but essentially an unplanned part, of a sound elementary school program in social studies. That day has passed; today current events understandings are a necessity for the intelligent and inquiring mind, no less so for children in elementary school than for students in secondary school and for adults."[35]

A third problem which is apparent in surveying trends in organization of social studies programs is the continuing preoccupation of too many schools with the subject matter of geography and history even though more and more programs are becoming broader. Important as these disciplines are, it is apparent that students of our present world must have, at least, much more familiarity with materials from economics, anthropology, sociology, and political science, and even other social sciences. That person is uninformed who assumes that the best introduction to our knowledge of man, his environment, his institutions, his affairs, his place in the world, and the place of his world in space includes only two of the fundamental social sciences. Where investigations have been made of the ability of elementary school children to master major concepts in the other fields, the findings have tended to encourage teachers to include materials from other disciplines in the curriculum. An example of such a study was that made with 1,332 children in Washington, D.C., to identify what could be provided in the way of economic education within the framework of a social studies curriculum in selected classrooms of the District of Columbia Laboratory Schools and to determine how well children could learn selected economic concepts and generalizations. Based on the findings of this study, a supplement to the Social Studies Curriculum Guide was prepared, designed to improve economic understanding among elementary school children.[36] More such investigations probably need to be carried on to encourage the inclusion of a broader selection of social science materials in the organized program of the elementary school.

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[34] *Ibid.*

[35] Smith, Lloyd L. "Current Events for the Elementary School." *Social Education* 25:81; No. 2, February 1961.

A fourth problem is that as yet there seems to be little evidence of including in the scope of social studies programs much material on space. The horizon in the expanding-horizons plan needs to be pushed farther out. Probably children are ahead of adults in their interest in developments in space. A discussion in a second grade in one elementary school recently might so indicate. One second grader said to the group the day after Mr. Shepard's flight, "The United States put a man in orbit yesterday." Another second grader said, "No, the United States didn't put a man in orbit. That was a sub-orbital flight." With second graders carrying on such discussions, it is probably important for schools to include in the curriculum some helpful material for children to study.

A fifth problem appears to be that some teachers cannot adapt social studies plans to individual children's interests and abilities. At least a report from one section of the country indicates this. McAulay had experience recently with an in-service workshop for 600 elementary school teachers in a school district in an Eastern state in which teachers submitted their problems. He states, "A large number of teachers (almost 400) were ignorant of how to adapt the social studies problem to each child's interest and ability—the teachers knew the words but couldn't put the words into action."[37]

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[36] Darrin, Garney L. "Economics in the Elementary School Curriculum. A Study of the District of Columbia Laboratory Schools." *Dissertation Abstracts* 95-96; 1960.

A sixth problem which is apparent is that most social studies programs are organized to help children learn about their world but without sufficent provision for their doing research in order to take action and solve problems. Some schools appear to be doing an excellent job in organizing the programs so that children will be helped to carry their knowledge into action and live their behavior in citizenship, but this emphasis is much too infrequently found. Learning to take action is still too frequently reserved for "extra-curricular activities." The job of being a citizen in our present world is becoming increasingly complex. Young people cannot suddenly acquire the needed abilities as they reach adulthood. In order for children to learn to live in this world as well as just learn about it, a consistent program of problem solving and action involvement is needed at the elementary school level. Knowledge for its own sake, while being very exciting and intriguing, is not particularly rewarding in social productiveness. Civic responsibility has to be learned not only by oneself but also by attacking group problems in participation with others. And yet, too frequently, in schools the studying stops at the "knowing about" level, and knowledge is not implemented in action. Children must help carry the responsibility for themselves and their education and must participate in decision making. The elementary school curriculum could well include a much larger portion of jobs to be done in the school and in the community in which children solve problems and take social action. Their education is incomplete if it stops at the knowing-about level and does not help them develop the will to act on the basis of knowledge and informed opinion.

Finally, more school systems probably should translate the key objectives of their programs into expectancies in behavioral terms representing varying levels of difficulty and then arrange these expectancies into a sequential spiraling pattern appropriate to varying levels of maturity. Such an endeavor would help all those engaged in the education of children in the elementary school to envisage the specifics which they are really trying to help children achieve and to become more aware of the progression to ever higher levels of achievement. In other words, the trend already noted in the direction of organizing to help children learn changes in behavior is moving too slowly for education in a democracy where citizens carry heavy responsibility for themselves and for the general welfare.

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[37] McAulay, J. D. "Two Major Problems in the Teaching of the Social Studies." *Social Studies* 51:135-39; April 1960.

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION

Certain basic principles of curriculum development apply to the organization of the social studies in elementary schools. Many of these are apparent and have been noted in the critical appraisal of trends described. A summary may be in order.

First, a sound curriculum plan is based upon both an understanding of children, their characteristics, needs, and development and an understanding of the realities of children's world environment—its development and problems. A child's learning is influenced by the setting in which he is, and his behavior modifies the setting. The two and their interaction must be considered together.

Second, academic scholars and curriculum scholars must work together in organizing social studies. The former are the spokesmen and interpreters for the findings of research in the social sciences, while the latter have the know-how to design experiences which are effective in helping children learn.

Third, the elementary school is for general education. Specialization for vocational purposes comes later. So at this level there is relatively little significance for children in giving attention to the structure and organization of separate disciplines. They should be helped to take a problem solving approach to learning and to draw data from whatever source can be found regardless of subject matter boundary lines. Neither is there virtue in comprehensive "coverage" of a subject according to the organization of all that is known. This does not mean that children will be superficial. It does mean they will select necessary subject matter without exhausting every area tapped. They will be more likely to return for later study if their appetite is not satiated with irrelevant facts but rather is left tempted by unexplored areas of knowledge and even some unanswered questions.

Fourth, if social studies work is to result in socially desirable changes in behavior, goals must be defined in behavioral terms.

Fifth, provisions must be made for learning concepts, generalizations, values, and skills. To insure adequate mastery, none of these should be left to chance. Children learn many things at once and can well master varied learnings simultaneously.

Sixth, recognizing that continuity in learning has to be achieved by each individual, teachers must involve students in creative planning of their own curriculum, using the school's plan for scope and sequence as a guide.

Seventh, provision for carrying ideas into action has to be made if the ideas are to be tested and if the habit of taking responsible action based upon knowledge and critical thinking is to be developed in students.

Eighth, makers of curriculum plans and guides must remember that curriculum is really developed by teachers and children working together. Therefore, guides which stimulate clear thinking about goals of social studies instruction offer a variety of suggestions. They help teachers and children plan their own learning experiences most effectively so that each child achieves his full potential. Some guides include both work sheets for planning and stimulating accounts of studies already carried through by teachers and children. National, state-wide, or district-wide curriculum plans, to be realistic, should provide for flexibility and adaptation to various school and classroom settings, to diverse individuals and groups of students, and to different teachers. They will thus have meaning and utility for all members of the audience to whom they are directed.

Ninth, in this time of rapid change there is need for constant evaluation and revision of any curriculum plan.

Tenth, the social studies should be planned as a program of instruction beginning in kindergarten and extending through the secondary school.

CHAPTER V

Current Affairs, Special Events, and Civic Participation

Dorothy McClure Fraser

THE chief focus of those who plan and implement social studies programs for elementary schools is on organized curriculum units designed to provide for the sequential development of generalizations, skills, and attitudes. It is proper that this should be so, since such units of study are basic for pupil progress toward the goals of elementary school social studies instruction. But running through or parallel with the systematically organized social studies units are certain recurring emphases that can make major contributions to the effectiveness of the total program. These include the study of current affairs, the treatment of controversial issues, the observance of holidays and other recurring special events, and participation in the civic activities of the school.

Too often, as an examination of curriculum bulletins and other professional literature will show, these recurring emphases are blessed and dismissed in a general manner that neither reveals their potential contribution to the social studies program nor provides specific help to the teacher who would capitalize on that potential. The purpose of this chapter is to describe these recurring emphases with some specificity and to suggest how they can be developed effectively in the elementary grades.

THE STUDY OF CURRENT AFFAIRS

The term, "current affairs," denotes a broader approach to the news of the day than does "current events," the term that was formerly used to designate this aspect of social studies work. In current affairs study, whether in elementary or secondary schools, significant events are considered against a background of preceding developments and with attention to environmental factors that play a part in them. This does not mean, however, that the current topics to be studied in the elementary school are identical with those that are selected for secondary school students nor that the same procedures will be used at all grade levels. Current affairs study in the modern elementary school begins in the kindergarten with brief reports from children about "interesting things that have happened" and grows into an organized treatment of selected current affairs in the later years of the elementary school. To handle current affairs study effectively, the elementary teacher must be aware of the potential values to be achieved through this study and be able to select appropriate content and procedures for the children she is teaching, so that each child is given gradually expanding experience with current affairs material as he grows through the elementary school years.

Values of Current Affairs Study

This gradually expanded attention to current affairs can be used to motivate and enrich the child's total work in social studies from year to year. Discussion of newsworthy current happenings can arouse interest and lead into the study of basic curriculum units on topics commonly taught in the various grades, such as primary grade units on "transportation and communication" or "food and clothing for our community" or the regional studies that are carried on in the intermediate grades. Current affairs materials can be used to bring such topics to life for the child by breaking down the barriers that too often arise between school study and the world outside of school. These materials can be used to bring textbooks, films, and other learning materials, which by their very nature are somewhat outdated even when they first appear, up to the moment. For example, information about the latest speed record set by a jet passenger plane, the events of a current election campaign, or an important change in leadership in a foreign country must come from the news of the day.

Study of current affairs can enrich the elementary school program in still another way, by providing opportunities for functional application of the various skills that are important goals of social studies instruction. The whole gamut of reading and critical thinking skills can be called into play in the study of current affairs. Committee work can be used, on a short-term or a continuing basis, to give children a chance to learn and practice group work skills. The nature of current affairs content is such that social studies vocabulary building will be enhanced as children learn about the happenings of the day. Map interpretation is a natural part of every current affairs session, so that the geographic skills and concepts that are being taught in basic units of study can be reinforced and generalized through purposeful use.

In addition to these immediate uses of current affairs study in elementary school social studies, there is the equally important long-range value of helping the child lay a foundation for dealing with contemporary issues at an adult level as he grows into adulthood. An appropriately graduated program of current affairs study helps him to develop a continuing interest in local, national, and world affairs. It helps him begin to form the habit of following current affairs regularly. It causes him to grow in the realization that he can understand important events of the day only if he knows something of related past events and something of the present-day setting (geographic and cultural) in which the events occur. Such a program of current affairs study helps the child begin to acquire a background of information about contemporary affairs of continuing importance so that, as a young adult, he will not have to "begin each news story in the middle."

The potential values of current affairs study in the elementary school are not realized automatically, however. The program of study for each school year must be carefully planned to fit the maturity of pupils, their abilities and their interests, if the values are to become real. Both content and procedures for dealing with the content must be selected on the basis of the same general principles that are applied in planning other aspects of the social studies program.

Criteria for Selecting Topics for Study

Topics for current affairs study in the elementary classroom may be introduced by the teacher or they may arise from questions or reports of pupils. In either case, to decide whether or not a particular topic is suitable for consideration by the group the teacher can apply three criteria:

1. Is this topic appropriate for the maturity level, the ability, and the experience backgrounds of these children? That is, can they comprehend basic information about the topic fully enough that the discussion will have meaning for them? Can they reasonably be expected to develop an interest in this topic?

In applying this criterion, the key idea is *understanding and interest at a level that will be significant to the child.* Clearly, some topics, such as a change in the value of the dollar in international exchange, are beyond the grasp of most elementary school children because of the technical information that is needed to gain any comprehension of it. Such topics will rarely be brought up by the children themselves and the thoughtful teacher will not introduce them. But a presidential election campaign or an advance in space exploration are examples of the many rather complicated topics that children are likely to raise. Such topics can be studied at various depths and may appropriately be given some attention, even by kindergartners, as long as the children's potential level of interest and understanding is taken into account.

It seems probable that we frequently underestimate the amount of background that elementary school children have gained outside of school, through television, radio, travel, and contacts with visitors from other regions of our country or from other lands, for current affairs study. We may also underestimate the value of helping the young child gain a sense of familiarity with the current topics he hears discussed on television or among adults, even though he does not comprehend them in depth. Thus the opening of a session of Congress or the United Nations General Assembly, a trip the President is making to another country, or the launching of a new satellite may be of interest to him and worth some discussion, although the child cannot be expected to comprehend the significance of the event at more than a surface level. By knowing her pupils well, the teacher will be able to gauge the depth at which a question they raise about a current affairs topic should be studied by the group.

2. Is the topic one which is significant to the child's understanding of his world, or one which can lead into the study of a significant topic?

Again the child's level of maturity must be taken into account in applying this criterion. For a primary grade class, discussing personal "news," such as a trip that one of the children's parents or the arrival of a new baby in one of the families, can lead to significant understandings. For older children less personalized topics of community, national, or international news become the core of current affairs study.

At either level it is often necessary to help children distinguish between the news which is a momentary sensation—the latest murder or a gruesome accident, for example—and that which is more significant. Frequently the sensational item can lead to study of a topic of broader importance: news of the spectacular fire becomes a take-off point for discussion of fire prevention and the enforcement of fire-safety regulations in the community, or discussion of the mid-air collision of two passenger planes may result in a study of proposed measures for improved aviation control.

3. Can adequate materials for the study of this topic be obtained?

During the later elementary school years the range of significant current affairs topics that pupils bring up or that the teacher could introduce becomes very wide indeed. The decision as to which ones shall be pursued in some depth must take into account the availabiity of appropriate learning materials. Can the children find newspaper and magazine accounts that deal with the topic and that they can read with understanding? Are there available films or filmstrips that give information about the topic and that the pupils can comprehend? Are background books or pamphlets to be found in the library? Are there resource people in the community from whom the pupils could get information about the topic? If the answers to these questions are negative, the particular topic should be given only a limited treatment or dropped in favor of another on which materials are available.

Organizing Current Affairs Study

In the first school years current affairs may be given regular, though not necessarily daily, attention during the sharing period which is usually a part of each day's program. Children may be encouraged to tell of important events they have seen reported on television or that have taken place in their neighborhood or home. They may be encouraged to find and bring pictures that tell of interesting things that have happened and show them to the class or place them on the bulletin board for the other pupils to see. Regular use of a weekly classroom newspaper can begin in the primary grades as a part of the social studies program.

As children move into the later primary and intermediate grades, their study of current affairs should become more structured and systematic. One of three approaches may be employed, but a combination of them is probably most profitable.

A short period for daily reporting of significant news may be continued, as in earlier years, but with more emphasis on selection of important topics and on an organized presentation by the pupil. The events which are reported may or may not be related to the social studies unit that the class is studying at the time. In using this approach, it is well to avoid requiring children to "be responsible for a news item" on a particular schedule, but to keep reporting on a voluntary basis and give recognition to volunteers who make useful contributions. It is sometimes urged that required reporting of news items will encourage pupils to become habitual readers of daily papers. Teachers (and parents) who have observed required "reporting of news items," however, know that too often merely meeting the requirement overshadows thoughtful selection and study of the news event, and that the result so far as habitual reading of the paper is concerned may be the reverse of that which is intended. The daily reporting period may be used to supplement more systematic study of current affairs through one of the plans next to be described, but is not an adequate program in itself.

In a second approach, a block of time is set aside one day each week for study and discussion of current affairs. In many schools a weekly classroom newspaper is used as the chief source for this study. Within this plan, several variations are possible. Each week the period may be devoted to a general news roundup, with time divided among local, national, and international affairs. Or one important topic may be selected each week for study by the entire class in as much detail as time and sources of information permit. Or the class may be divided into two or more groups, each of which is responsible for careful study of a different major topic and for less intensive reading about other news. Each group then presents the results of its detailed study to the rest of the class.

In another variation of the weekly current affairs period, continuing committees are set up to follow leading news stories and report on them at appropriate intervals. Thus while Congress is in session, one committee may be expected to report from time to time on what Congress is doing. At the same time, a second committee will be following developments in one of the "hot spots" of world affairs—the Middle East, or the new African nations, for example, and still other committees will have other topics of continuing significance for study and report.

A third approach, involving short current affairs units usually focused on a single topic and interspersed between the longer social studies units that are planned for the year, may be used with older children. A tentative list of topics for such units may be made at the beginning of the year, since it is possible to predict some areas in which there will be important developments, and background materials assembled for each one. As the time for a current affairs unit approaches, the topic that is most in the news may be selected for study, or a topic that is not on the tentative list but has assumed great importance in the news may be substituted. This plan has the advantage of providing for study in some depth of an important current affairs topic. It permits children to use a wider range of materials about the topic and to engage in a greater variety of activities than is usually feasible when current affairs study is limited to a short daily reporting period or a weekly discussion session.

Whatever combination of the above approaches is employed with older children, the teacher should encourage pupils to consult a variety of sources.

Sources for Current Affairs Study

Probably the most widely used source of reading material for current affairs study in the elementary school is the graded classroom newspaper. These periodicals, the major ones of which are listed on the last page of this chapter, are carefully prepared by competent staffs. The topics discussed in each issue are selected on the basis of criteria similar to those suggested in the preceding section. A conscious effort is made to show relationships that may exist between current news stories and topics the children are likely to be studying in their social studies units. Because the material is written in a well-organized fashion and at the reading level of the grade for which each paper is intended, these periodicals offer opportunities for practice in developing reading, picture, and map interpretation skills. Teachers' editions for each issue usually contain helpful suggestions for skill-building exercises based on the material in the issue, as well as suggested lesson plans.

Reliance on the classroom newspaper as the only source of reading material for current affairs study, however, brings the same problems that arise when children use a single textbook for other aspects of their social studies work. No matter how carefully the material is graded, one source cannot provide for the range of reading levels to be found in any class. The more advanced readers need material written above their grade level, the slow readers will find material written at their grade level too difficult. Just as the textbook cannot supply information about a specific local community's history, geography, or governmental patterns, so the classroom newspaper cannot present local or regional news. Just as reliance on a single textbook encourages routine assign-study-recite procedures, so may the use of the classroom newspaper as the only source for current affairs study. That these limitations are recognized by the publishers of classroom newspapers, as they are by reputable textbook publishers, is evidenced by the fact that the teachers' editions for both the periodicals and textbooks carry suggestions of sources of additional materials that children may consult.

Children in the intermediate and upper grades should be encouraged to use adult newspapers and news magazines, to a greater or lesser extent depending on reading ability, as sources for their study of particular current affairs topics. That this is both feasible and profitable, when adequate guidance is given, has been demonstrated by superior teachers many times. Relevant pamphlets, charts, graphs, and maps should also be consulted as pupils study a current affairs topic in some depth. In addition to the enrichment of content that will result from the use of such a variety of reading material, pupils will have opportunity to develop skill in comparing and evaluating sources and in organizing information drawn from several places.

Television and radio news programs are easily accessible sources for current affairs study at home by older children. In fact, recent surveys[1] of 2,300 children in grades 5, 7, 9, and 11 revealed that television and radio were preferred by a majority of the children as sources of current affairs information. Television was the first choice of 57 per cent of the fifth graders, and newspapers of only 18 per cent. Among eleventh graders, 43 per cent preferred television and 32 per cent chose newspapers. The preference for radio stood at about 20 per cent at all grade levels.

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[1] Reported by William S. Baxter in *Broadcasting*, October 24, 1960. p. 90-91.

With the increased influence of the mass communication media on public opinion, it is as important that young people learn to evaluate information received from newscasts and commentator's presentations as that they learn to read newspapers and magazines critically. They also need to discover that the news coverage provided by radio and television as compared with that of newspapers has certain advantages, such as speedier reporting of events, and certain shortcomings, such as inability to give detailed coverage of many important stories. In the intermediate and upper grades at least a beginning can be made in teaching these points. They need to develop the habit of using each medium for the purposes for which it is most satisfactory, and of being unsatisfied to rely on television and radio to the exclusion of the fuller coverage provided by newspapers and magazines.

Procedures for Conducting Current Affairs Study

In selecting procedures for current affairs study, the same principles that apply to other aspects of the social studies programs should be observed. To enhance pupil interest, to take care of individual differences, and to provide for the development of understandings, attitudes, and skills, a variety of procedures should be used and pupils should have some choice of activities from time to time. Pupils should take part in selecting procedures through cooperative planning, to the extent that they have the maturity and experience to do so. The procedures used over a period of time should provide for a balance between reading, writing, drawing, and oral activity.

A number of procedures for conducting current affairs study have been implied in preceding sections of this chapter, but there are many others that can be used effectively. The following listing suggests the range of potentially useful activities. In addition to those included here many of the activities that are used to develop any social studies unit can be adapted to current affairs study.

Procedures such as these are especially useful for primary grade classes:

1. Brief reporting and discussion periods devoted to "interesting news."
2. Dictating a "news story" and using it for reading practice.
3. A news bulletin board, on which pictures and clippings brought in by the children or by the teacher are displayed. An organization ap-

propriate to the maturity of the children should be used in displaying these materials. For very young children, for example, the categories might be "People in the News," "Places in the News," "Animals in the News." For older children the headings might be "News of Our Community," "News of Our Country," "News of Our World."

4. Dramatic play, in which children "play out" interesting events they have talked about, for example, a trip that has been reported by one of the pupils, a visit to the zoo to see an interesting addition to the collection that has been reported on television or in the newspaper, or the queen's visit (or the visit of another person of interest to the children) to this country.

5. Picture reading exercises following this pattern:[2]

Level 1. Enumeration—the mere labeling of objects in the picture. "What do you see in this picture?"

Level 2. Description—telling what is happening in the picture. "What are the people doing?" or "What is happening?"

Level 3. Interpretation—using imagination and applying previously obtained information to give meaning to the picture. "What might these people be saying to each other?" "Why do you think so?" "Have you seen pictures of these people before? Where? Why are they in the news?" "Have you seen a machine like this one? What is it used for?"

If desired, the exercise may conclude by deciding on a title for the picture or deciding under which bulletin board heading it should be placed.

6. Vocabulary building exercises, using important "news story words" and applying customary procedures for developing word meanings.

7. Questions to guide reading of simple news stories.

8. Making posters or drawings to show an interesting event that has been discussed.

With older children, procedures such as these may be used in conducting current affairs study.

1. Providing guide questions to direct children's current affairs reading, and conducting class discussion organized around the guide questions.

2. Discussing important words or terms with which children may be unfamiliar, using customary vocabulary development procedures.

3. Establishing standing committees to follow and report on topics of continuing importance.

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[2] Adapted from suggestions in *Teacher's Edition, My Weekly Reader 3*, September 12-16, 1960.

4. Using various forms of discussion during current affairs sessions, such as round table discussions, panel discussions, or "town meeting" forums. Pupils must, of course, learn what each of these special forms of discussion involve before they attempt to use them and should set standards for evaluation, to be applied after the discussion by the teacher or by the discussants themselves.

5. Interpreting pictures and simple cartoons dealing with current affairs topics. Older children will usually be ready to discuss pictures at the third level described above, although in some cases it may be desirable to treat the picture at levels 1 and 2 as well. Intermediate grade children can begin to learn symbols commonly used in cartoons, for example, Uncle Sam as representing the United States and the dove as a symbol of peace.

6. Studying headlines: Examining them to see whether or not they fit the news stories over which they appear, comparing the headlines used by two or more papers for stories on the same event or topic, and writing their own headlines for important news stories.

7. Locating, on a wall map, the place where each important news event took place.

8. Finding examples in news stories of statements of fact and statements of opinion, and discussing the difference. In connection with such exercises children may learn the function of the editorial page and that one standard by which to judge a newspaper is the extent to which editorial comment creeps into the news columns.

9. Keeping a current affairs bulletin board up to date. This display may take a variety of forms from time to time, and reflect other aspects of the current affairs study. For example, if the class has spent some time in learning to read cartoons, in studying headlines, or in distinguishing between fact and opinion, the bulletin board may feature cartoons, headlines, or news clippings marked to show statements of fact and of opinion. Other standard displays may include: news items, pictures, cartoons, and editorials organized under such headings as "local news," "national news," and "world news"; a map of the world mounted in the center of the display with clippings posted around the map and ribbons running from each clipping to the locale of the events, a topical display limited to clippings, pictures, and maps giving information about an important event or topic, such as the presidential election or the work of the United Nations.

10. Giving oral presentations based on special "research." Such presentations may be made by individuals or groups and take one of several forms—a mock radio or TV newscast patterned on a real one with which pupils are familiar; a dramatization of an important event,

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such as the inauguration of the President or governor, the opening of a session of Congress or of the state legislature; a floor talk illustrated with pictures, maps, and pupil-made slides.

11. Participating in review quiz games, in which pupils prepare questions about important current happenings or personalities in the news. These may take the form of contests, "what's my name" games, etc.

12. Listening to tapes, newscasts, or commentaries (recorded from commercial newscasts by the teacher or a pupil at home) and discussing them. Such exercises offer opportunity for developing listening skills. Guide questions, similar to those used to direct reading, may be provided by the teacher as a help in listening and as a basis for organizing the follow-up discussion.

13. Viewing and discussing news films and filmstrips. As in reading and listening activities, guide questions may be used to direct study of the material.

14. Discussing and stating questions that should be considered in selecting a current affairs topic for extended study. Such questions as these may be developed:

> Is this a topic that is important to our community, our state, or our nation?
> Is this topic likely to stay in the news for some time?
> Can we find enough information about this topic to really learn something about it?

15. Drawing posters, maps, cartoons, or "true comic strips" related to news events or current affairs topics.

Evaluating Children's Progress in Current Affairs Study

Children learn early in their school careers that what is valued is evaluated, although they used other words to express this fact of life. If the teacher is convinced of the values of current affairs study, he will apply the same kinds of evaluation to the children's progress in this aspect of their social studies work that he does to the rest of the program. Most of the evaluation techniques suggested in Chapter X can be used in doing so.

The Treatment of Controversial Issues

"Treating controversial issues in elementary school classes? Why, the children aren't mature enough!"—thus may run the reaction of some readers. But experienced elementary teachers know that many of the situations that arise in everyday school life and many of the current affairs and other social studies topics that are studied today by elementary school children involve unanswered questions about which different people hold opposing points of view. To the extent that these unanswered questions and the various proposals for resolving them are considered, the children are studying about "controversial issues" and are learning a basic lesson of democratic living, that citizens have an obligation to seek answers to such issues in a thoughtful manner.

For example, the primary grade class that finds its members divided on the question of how many people and whom to invite to a program the class has prepared is dealing with an issue that is controversial to the children and that can be resolved rationally. True the question is of a different nature and at a different level than the study that older children may make of the issues during a presidential campaign or of an aspect of the nation's foreign policy. These, too, are issues that involve controversy and for which solutions based on evidence other than prejudice need to be sought, even though different people may arrive at different solutions.

In dealing with some social studies situations and topics the controversial aspect is minimal or even non-existent, but in other cases the heart of the study may be the search for tentative conclusions about unanswered questions. Whenever controversial questions enter the classroom proceedings, there is opportunity to help children build the skills of critical thinking and problem solving that are discussed in Chapter VI, and to help develop habits of applying these skills appropriately. There is opportunity to teach respect for the other person's opinion, if that opinion is based on study of available evidence.

The controversial issues that elementary school children are to study must be selected by applying criteria that are similar to those suggested above for selecting current affairs topics for study. Is the issue real to the children, or can it be made so, at their level of maturity and ability? Is the issue sufficiently important, either to the immediate purposes of the class or in the context of societal affairs, to justify spending the time needed to deal with it adequately? Will study of the issue contribute to achieving the goals of the social studies program? Can children obtain adequate information and materials, that they can use with understanding, about the issue and the various points of view that are held concerning it?

Another criterion that must be considered in deciding on any extended treatment of a controversial topic is whether or not the climate in the community is such that the study can be conducted successfully. Most issues that are chosen for elementary school study on the basis of the first four criteria will pass the test of the fifth, since the questions that parents might object to having young children study are likely to be too complex for the elementary school youngster. If there is a question, however, the teacher is well-advised to discuss the matter with the school administration in advance, explaining the reasons that it is desirable for the children to study the topic, what materials are to be used, and how the study is to be conducted.

Controversial issues must be considered in a classroom atmosphere that emphasizes free inquiry and the weighing of evidence, if the study is to help children grow in critical thinking and problem solving skills and to help them respect honest difference of opinion. The teacher can do much to create such an atmosphere by setting the example of always considering various points of view about controversial questions that arise. He has an obligation to refrain from indoctrinating children with his own opinions or convictions about an issue. This does not necessarily mean that the teacher must conceal his own views, but if he presents them he must be careful to do so at a time and in a manner that will leave children free to arrive at their own conclusions.

Many of the classroom procedures suggested above for the study of current affairs can be used for the study of controversial issues. In adapting them, particular attention should be given to systematic application of the steps and skills involved in critical thinking and problem solving, as described in Chapter VI, for in their development lies a major value of the treatment of controversial issues in elementary social studies.

Observance of Holidays and Special Events

Children receive their first introduction to many of our national and cultural traditions through the observance of holidays and special events. For most youngsters this introduction begins at home in family celebrations and in their early school years it is continued through planned experiences. Two generations ago, almost all of the "social studies" taught in the primary grades was presented through the observance of birthdays of national heroes and the commemoration of other special events. Today, with more fully developed social studies programs in most kindergarten and primary grade classes and with greatly expanded programs in the intermediate grades, the observance of holidays and other special days continues to be a recurring theme.

Observance of special days can contribute to the citizenship education goals of social studies instruction, especially to the building of constructive attitudes and loyalties. Through these observances children from the many diverse groups in our country gain a common background of experiences that can become a basis for communication with others and for a feeling of belonging to the larger national group.

Patriotic holidays, such as Washington's birthday, Flag Day, or Veteran's Day can be treated so as to help children develop feelings of respect for those who helped to build their country, a healthy loyalty to national ideals, and acceptance of the citizen's responsibilities. Persons and events important in local, state, or regional history are commemorated in some schools for these same purposes. Traditional observances, such as Thanksgiving, Valentine's Day, or Mother's Day can stress family, friendship, and community ties and the individual relationships that are involved. Brotherhood Week has been developed as one approach to improved intergroup relations, as has the custom that is found in some schools of observing both Hanukkah and Christmas. The growth of empathy with other peoples may be implemented by discovering how such holidays as Christmas or New Year's are celebrated in other lands and by learning about other special days that are observed in various countries of the world. A more direct approach to creating international understanding and interest in world affairs is found in many intermediate grade classes in the observance of Pan-American Day and United Nations Day.

To achieve these purposes, the special days to be celebrated in a particular grade must be selected on the basis of their potential meaningfulness to the children involved. Some special observances, such as Halloween, Thanksgiving, Valentine's Day, and Washington's Birthday, are a part of even young children's experience and can be given cumulative, increasingly mature treatment each year from the kindergarten through the intermediate grades. Others, such as Pan-American Day or Bill of Rights Day, involve concepts that are unknown or have little meaning to primary grade children and should not be introduced until the intermediate grades.

In observing each special event that is selected for treatment in a given grade, the informational content that is used must be comprehensible to the children and the activities to be carried out must be ones that the children can perform with success and enjoyment. Otherwise youngsters are likely to develop negative attitudes rather than the positive ones that are a chief goal of the observances.

Appropriately treated, however, special events that may seem only remotely a part of the child's world can take on significance for him. For example, members of a second grade class seemed to reinforce their television acquaintance with the United Nations when they celebrated United Nations Day as a birthday. The children looked at some pictures of the United Nations headquarters, and talked about pictures of it they had seen on television. The teacher told them that people from all over the world come to these buildings to talk together about things they are all interested in, and that "today is the birthday of the United Nations." She suggested that the children might make "happy birthday" cards of the sort they made for a member of their own class who had a birthday, and promised to mail the cards to the United Nations. While they were making the cards, using crayons and colored art paper, one of the pupils suggested that they could sing "Happy Birthday, Dear United Nations," and the class did so. This brief observance of United Nations Day by primary grade children provided a positive experience keyed to their level of awareness and interest.

In the case of special days that the child will celebrate each year he is in the elementary school, such as Thanksgiving or Washington's Birthday, gradation and variety in experiences from year to year are essential. Failure to use fresh, increasingly mature approaches to the commemoration of Washington's Birthday, for example, may create in children a feeling that our first President was a dignified and important but remote and rather dull figure, instead of helping them to see him as a vigorous person who enjoyed life and at the same time gave wise and dedicated leadership to his country. On the other hand, a graded series of experiences such as these can make Washington's Birthday a memorable event and help children develop a positive appreciation of this national hero:

Grade 1. A birthday party in honor of our first President, who lived long, long ago, perhaps with the children's mothers as invited guests.
Grade 2. Hearing a story about Washington and discussing it.
Grade 3. Reading stories about Washington's boyhood, and drawing pictures to illustrate the stories.
Grade 4. Studying about and dramatizing one or more important events in Washington's public life, and presenting the dramatization to invited guests, another intermediate grade class, perhaps.
Grade 5. Preparing a display of pictures relating to Washington's life and service to his country, with an explanatory caption for each picture, and exhibiting the display on a hall bulletin board or in the window of a store in the community.
Grade 6. Planning and working out a program about Washington's life and services to his country, and presenting it for an intermediate grade assembly, the Parent Teachers Association, or the grade mothers club.

The elementary curriculum committee of the Buffalo, New York, Public Schools developed suggestions for treating national holidays and special days as a means of teaching good citizenship, as shown in the chart on pages 146-147. They recognized the need for gradation of experiences, by introducing in each succeeding year additional observances and ones that call for increasingly mature concepts. By proposing activities that children can carry on at home and in the community,

SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING GOOD CITIZENSHIP[a]

	Kindergarten	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3
RESPECT FOR OUR NATIONAL HOLIDAYS AND SPECIAL DAYS	Halloween Thanksgiving Day Christmas Valentine's Day Easter Flag Day Mother's Day Father's Day Family birthdays	Lincoln's Birthday Washington's Birthday	Veterans Day New Year's	Columbus Day Brotherhood Week Book Week Arbor Day Independence Day
		Continue to emphasize special days observed in Kindergarten		
HOME	Prepare for home celebrations 1. Decorations in home 2. Family get-togethers 3. Traditional family activities	Learn about meaning of Thanksgiving, Christmas, and Hanukkah Prepare for home celebration Participate in traditional family activities pertaining to the holidays		
SCHOOL	Halloween—discussions of best ways to have fun Thansgiving—ways of giving thanks Easter—spring activities Valentine's Day—remembering family and friends Christmas—sharing Flag Day—honoring our flag	Lincoln—learn about his love of learning and integrity as shown in stories Washington—learn about his leadership and patriotism as shown in stories	Origin of Valentine's Day Learn respect for the flag as a symbol of our country Columbus—story of his contribution to knowledge about the world Washington—stories about his boyhood and education	Learning about the background of national groups in our school or city through stories, dances, and songs Book Week—care and appreciation of books Arbor Day—significance Lincoln—contribution to brotherhood Washington—his part in establishing out country Origin of Flag Day and Independence Day Respect for flag
COMMUNITY	Take part in neighborhood celebrations	Take part in Flag Day and Halloween parades Display flag correctly on patriotic holidays	Participate in making favors for hospitalized veterans Take part in celebrations in the neighborhood as picnics and parades Display flag correctly	Prepare exhibits for store window displays Take part in civic celebrations as parades, planting ceremonies, community Christmas tree programs, and caroling Discuss suitable ways to celebrate Halloween in the community

[a] Buffalo Public Schools, *Curriculum Guide, Grade Four, Grade Five and Grade Six.* Buffalo, New York: Board of Education 1959, p. SS-17.

SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING GOOD CITIZENSHIP[a]

	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
RESPECT FOR OUR NATIONAL HOLIDAYS AND SPECIAL DAYS **HOME**	Assist family in plans to observe: 1. Thanksgiving 2. Christmas 3. New Year's 4. Easter 5. Other special days	Maintain and extend the work of previous grades 1. Instruct adults on how flags should be displayed 2. Encourage parents to display our flag on appropriate holidays	Maintain and extend the work of previous grades
SCHOOL	Read and discuss the historical significance of: 1. Columbus Day 2. Thanksgiving Day 3. Hanukkah 4. Christmas Day 5. New Year's 6. Lincoln's Birthday 7. Washington's Birthday 8. Memorial Day Emphasize meaning and value of: 1. American Education Week 2. National Book Week 3. Brotherhood Week	Maintain and extend the work of previous grades Emphasize historical significance of: 1. Veterans Day 2. Bill of Rights Day 3. Memorial Day 4. Flag Day 5. Independence Day Stress importance of Arbor Day 1. Plant trees on school grounds 2. Plant trees or seeds around home	In studying other countries learn how the people observe their important holidays
COMMUNITY	Participate in civic projects that are planned to acquaint the public with the significance of special occasions	Emphasize the importance of election Encourage parents to vote Report programs and current news that show correct observance of holidays	Maintain and extend the work of previous grades Encourage class to conduct an election to understand: 1. Register 2. Vote 3. Candidate 4. Poll 5. Majority Participate in civic celebrations relative to special days

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[a] Buffalo Public Schools. *Curriculum Guide, Grade Four, Grade Five and Grade Six*. Buffalo, New York: Board of Education, 1959. p. SS-16.

as well as in the classroom, the committee suggested ways of relating school observances of special days to broader civic action.

PARTICIPATION IN CIVIC ACTIVITIES OF THE SCHOOL

In most elementary schools today a variety of civic activities are carried on. Some are service activities conducted within the classroom. Even young children serve the group as "helpers" by watering the plants, distributing materials, acting as host or hostess when visitors come, or carrying out other responsibilities. Older children add such responsibilities as acting as classroom librarian or serving on various room committees.

Some of the civic activities are conducted on a school-wide basis—maintaining a lost-and-found service, conducting the safety patrol, carrying out Junior Red Cross projects, or operating a school bank, for example, and tend to involve chiefly the older children. In many elementary schools there is a "pupil council" or a "school council" made up of elected representatives from the classes of older children. Such councils carry on a variety of service activities in appropriate areas, such as working for school safety, helping to plan clean-up drives, bicycle safety programs and other special school events, or supervising some of the activities named earlier in this paragraph.

For the most part these service and civic activities are not considered a specific part of the social studies curriculum. Nevertheless, they can contribute to the attainment of social studies goals if the teacher is alert to take advantage of them. Most obvious, perhaps, is the opportunity such activities provide for helping the child develop attitudes of self-responsibility and willingness to carry his part in the work of the group, along with learning some of the skills required for successful group enterprise.

Frequently, these school activities can be used to illustrate concepts that are developed in social studies units and in current affairs study. For example, an election of representatives for the school council provides opportunity for discussion of the democratic process, of certain aspects of government, and of the need for citizens to cast their votes wisely. When pupils are building simple concepts concerning their local, state, and national governments, some carefully drawn comparisons with their own school council may be appropriate and enlightening, as well as interest-building. During an election year, when the political campaign is in the news, the election process in the school may again provide helpful comparisons. Care must be taken, of course, to avoid misleading or inaccurate comparisons.

Programs for elementary schools sponsored by such organizations as the Junior Red Cross and the American Friends Service Committee often provide opportunities for projects that can help children begin to develop interest in and understanding of peoples of other lands, and of other regions of their own country. UNICEF activities, which are carried on in many schools, can open another window on the varied cultures of the world's peoples.

The question the teacher must ask is whether or not these varied civic and service activities are being capitalized on in the social studies instruction as fully as they could be. Children need help in generalizing their specific experiences, in seeing relationships between the facts and ideas they are studying in social studies and the various school activities that are going on around them. They also need help in translating what they may learn about fire safety during fire prevention week, or about other topics during special "drives," into behaviors that will function as part of their daily lives throughout the year.

SUMMARY

Systematically organized units of work are the backbone of the elementary school social studies curriculum, but not all the experiences and content that are needed to achieve social studies goals can be included in the organized program of unit study. From the study of current affairs and controversial issues, from the observance of special days and events, and from the civic activities of the school can come content and experiences that are invaluable for the child's growth in social studies knowledge, attitudes, and skills. We lose vital opportunities if we fail to develop the recurring emphases that are discussed in this chapter. To capitalize on these opportunities, however, these emphases must be developed in a gradation that is appropriate to the maturity, abilities, and potential interests of the children in each successive year of the elementary school. The opportunities exist; are we making the most of them in our elementary school social studies instruction?

CURRENT EVENTS MATERIALS FOR CHILDREN

American Education Press, 400 S. Front Street, Columbus, Ohio.
My Weekly Reader Surprise, kindergarten; *My Weekly Reader,* grades 1-6; *Current Events,* grades 7-8; *Read Magazine,* grades 6-8.

Civic Education Service, 1733 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.
The Young Citizen, grades 5-6; *The Junior Review,* grades 7-8.

Scholastic Magazines, 351 Fourth Avenue, New York 10, New York.
News Pilot, grade 1; *News Ranger,* grade 2; *News Trails,* grade 3; *News Explorer,* grade 4; *Newstime,* grade 5; *Junior Scholastic,* grades 6-8.

CHAPTER VI

Skills and Processes in the Social Studies

Section One: Critical Thinking and Problem Solving

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INTRODUCTION

THE social studies do not present the only curricular opportunity to develop the skills and attitudes of critical thinking and problem solving. However, it is in the social studies that the pupil comes into contact with those problems which are most intimately connected with his life, problems which are of immediate concern as he adapts himself to the increasingly complex demands of his activities in school, in the home, and in the community. The first part of this section discusses the thinking process and problem solving; it also discusses the role of emotion as an inhibitor of critical thinking and as a contributing factor to the solution of problems. The next part discusses the achievement of the goals of the social studies through critical thinking and problem solving; this is followed by examples of critical thinking and problem solving (1) within the community, at the primary grades; (2) within the state, at the middle grades; and (3) within the Americas, at the upper grades. The final part of this section presents teacher guidelines to the use of critical thinking and problem solving in the social studies, and a summary.

ASPECTS OF CRITICAL THINKING AND PROBLEM SOLVING

The Thinking Process

Thinking is a term which, while it is specific, is described in many ways and therefore appears difficult to define clearly. Thinking is defined as "a determined course of ideas, symbolic in character, initiated

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This section was reviewed by Mrs. Helen Hiles Barber, Principal, Los Angeles City Schools, Dr. George H. Goody, Evaluation and Research Section, Los Angeles City Schools, Dr. Taylor T. Jackman, Principal, Compton City Elementary Schools, and Mrs. Helen Cowan Wood, Director, Department of Instruction, Sacramento County Schools.

by a problem or task, and leading to a conclusion."[1] It is also considered a process which moves from an initiation to some conclusion or solution rather than the process of increasing skill or perfecting the execution of solutions. Thinking is sometimes defined as a process which is ongoing while learning takes place. Therefore, it is an intermediate action rather than the final product.[2]

Dewey indicates that thinking is considered to be a process which involves the discovery of specific links between what one does and what happens as a result of this action. He has described thinking as "that operation in which present facts suggest other facts (or truths) in such a way as to induce belief in the latter upon the ground or warrant of the former."[3] A summary of the literature indicates that thinking may be considered a method of educative experience embracing a number of elements, in which the individual:

1. Becomes involved in an experience;
2. Becomes aware of a task or problem within the experience;
3. Accumulates facts he believes pertinent to the solution of the problem;
4. Recognizes and completes one or more possible solutions to the problem;
5. Tests the solutions, determining their soundness and further clarifying his analysis of the situation.

For this section thinking shall be viewed as "a process rather than a fixed state. It shall be said to include a sequence of ideas moving from some beginning, through some sort of pattern of relationships to some goal or conclusion."[4]

There are several types of thinking of which one must be aware if there is to be a clear view of this process established. Russell identifies these as perceptual thinking, associative thinking, inductive thinking, and concept formation, critical thinking, problem solving, and creative thinking.[5]

In considering the various types of thinking in the ensuing content it will be noted that there is a developmental pattern evident within and among them, with variations in direction and organization dependent upon the individual involved, his interests, his previous experiences, the present situation, and the environment.

Perceptual thinking. This type of thinking is the least directive of the types of thinking. It is most affected by environmental conditions and is based on the child's experiences. It is dependent upon the nature of the stimulus situation, the capacity of the child's receptors, and the state of the organism rather than upon a definite problem or goal. It is developmental in nature beginning at birth and as maturity takes place, progresses from a vague, generalized response to specific responses which are clearly defined.

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[1] Russell, David H. *Children's Thinking*. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1956. p. 4.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 16.

[3] Dewey, John. *How We Think*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1910. p. 8-9.

[4] Russell, *op cit.*, p. 27.

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 10-14.

Russell emphasizes the importance of the home and the school in the development of percepts, which are some of the materials in perceptual thinking, through providing opportunities for children in a free or permissive atmosphere to explore, manipulate, and play with toys, blocks, tools, and other equipment. He also indicates that errors in perception are common and that young children particularly need help in realizing that they cannot always depend upon what they perceive.[6]

Associative thinking. This process involves reaction to a specific response in the surrounding conditions, influences, or forces which affect it. It is a type of thinking less involved than critical and creative thinking, and is more closely concerned with elements in previous experiences, recall of specific happenings, and a logical succession of ideas than is critical thinking or problem solving. Since associative thinking is loosely organized it may lapse into irrelevance, return to a path or groove, or even start all over again.[7]

Inductive-deductive thinking leading to concept formation. This type of thinking is somewhat more directed in nature as compared with the types described previously since it denotes more interrelationship and a more definite conclusion.

Russell cites studies which indicate that the development of concepts seems to move along a continuum from simple to complex, from concrete to abstract, from undifferentiated to differentiated, from discrete to organized, and from egocentric to nonsocial. Concept development in children appears to be related somewhat more closely to chronological age than to mental age.[8]

Critical thinking. Critical thinking as defined in this section involves the organization and unbiased examination of stimuli through comparison with relevant, objective evidence and with norms of conduct and behavior, and the formulation and verification of hypotheses. The extent to which a child is able to think critically depends upon his background of information, his attitude of acceptance or suspended judgment, his skills in relating certain standards or values to the object or issue involved, and his ability to approach the object or issue with objectivity.

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[6] *Ibid.*, p. 65-99.
[7] *Ibid.*, p. 203-25.
[8] *Ibid.*, p. 249.

In a world of conversation, admonition, newspapers, books, and television programs, the child needs to develop the ability to evaluate ideas, to be critical in scientific, social, and personal matters. This seems to involve attitude plus knowledge of facts plus some thinking skills.[9]

Problem solving. Problem solving is the process by which the child goes from a task or problem as he sees it to a solution which, for him, meets the demand of the problem.[10]

The problem solving process varies with the nature of the task, with the methods of attack known by the solver, with personal characteristics of the solver, and with the total situation in which the problem is presented.[11]

Further consideration will be given to problem solving later in this section.

Creative thinking. Creative thinking is thinking that is inventive, that explores novel situations or reaches new solutions to old problems, or that results in thoughts original to the thinker.[12] It is regarded as a common characteristic existing on a continuum and not as an esoteric ability possessed only by the favored few. It is related to the areas of thinking previously discussed. It may involve associations of things known but put into a fresh synthesis. It may treat a clearly defined problem and it usually has a high degree of personal involvement plus an individual hallmark.

A pattern of development in thinking. Russell states that the different types of thinking follow a similar pattern of development and that the following steps may occur in this developmental pattern:

1. The child's mental activity is stimulated by his presence in the environment.
2. The orientation or initial direction of the thinking is established.
3. The search for related materials takes place.
4. There is a patterning of various ideas into some hypothesis or tentative conclusion.
5. The critical or deliberative part of thinking is developed.
6. The previously selected hypothesis is tested.

These six steps in the thinking process also have such internal differences as the amount of direction involved, the extent to which organization of materials is needed, and the type of final organization or conclusion that is reached.[13]

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[9] Harris, Chester W., editor. *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1960. p. 651.

[10] Russell, *op. cit.*, p. 251.

[11] *Ibid.*, p. 12.

[12] *Ibid.*, p. 13.

[13] *Ibid.*, p. 15-16.

Critical Thinking

The use of the term critical thinking appears to assume identifiable differences between *thinking* per se and another phenomenon which can be labeled "critical thinking." There appears to be a further assumption that there is a demarcation between these phenomena, and that the "critical" attributes of the latter activity are at no time present in the former. Russell's discussion of the various types of thinking evinces the error of such assumptions: "recent work suggests that . . . the sequence of any pattern of stages shifts rapidly without a general clear-cut series of events always in operation."[14]

However, the term "critical thinking" has been used in general educational literature for many years to describe a thinking process in which the role of emotion is held to a minimum, and which seems to involve a sequence of mental activities which are fairly constant; the use of such a definition does not appear to be declining.

For the purposes of this section, *critical thinking is defined as involving the organization and unbiased examination of stimuli through comparison with relevant, objective evidence and with norms of conduct and behavior, and the formulation and verification of hypotheses.* It is apparent that through the application of this process solutions to problems may be obtained. However, critical thinking should not be reserved for the solution of so-called "problems." Many, if not most, of the activities during the school day should involve thinking which would employ the processes described above. Russell says that "critical thinking is best tested in action. Conclusions arrived at during discussion and reading in school classes must be tried out in concrete situations. Boys and girls can learn responsibility for their conclusions only when they are required to test them in actual practice."[15]

The definition of critical thinking given above includes elements of problem solving and judgment making. Multiple meanings of the term appear in the literature of general education and in reports of research. Reports of success in teaching the techniques of analysis and evaluation in a number of curricular areas have been summarized by Russell. These include judgments of authenticity and relevancy of materials by children in reading classes at the intermediate grades; techniques of reading magazines and newspapers; the derivation of appropriate conclusions from experiences in elementary science; and propaganda analysis. Russell concludes that the studies he reported "give some support to the hypothesis that critical thinking in most curricular areas can be taught through suitable classroom practices."[16] It is the purpose of this section to describe various problem situations which may be encountered in the social studies in the elementary grades and to illustrate the application of certain thought processes to the solution of these problems.

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[14] Harris, *op. cit.*, p. 647.

[15] Russell, *op. cit.*, p. 380.

Problem Solving

Problem solving is recognized to be an element of the thinking process. Research indicates that problem solving is composed of the application of a number of abilities, such as remembering, perceiving, recalling, associating, generalizing, and reconstructing ideas.[17] With such an imposing array of abilities attached to the term problem solving, it might be well to define, first, what is meant by a *problem,* and second, what is meant by *problem solving.*

For the purpose of this section, *a problem is defined as a situation or an obstacle requiring a solution.* It is essential that the individual recognize that a situation is present in which action or understanding is impeded. The problem may exist without a recognition on the part of the individual, but it is not a problem to him until such time as he is aware of its existence.

A problem is both objective and subjective in nature. The outward factors, or stimuli, are evident. These factors, or stimuli, are translated into a problem through subjective interpretation.

Problem solving refers to the activities or processes utilized by the individual as he seeks a solution to a problem. These activities may be economical or wasteful of human energy. They are individual in nature, each person evolving a solution through a process or processes peculiar to that individual. The success with which a person is able to solve a problem and the completeness of the solution are also individual in nature.

In 1910 John Dewey published his definitive study of the problem solving process. This monumental work has provided a basis for subsequent studies in this area of investigation. Research since 1910 has tended to substantiate the findings of Dewey, with some modification in the number of steps involved in the problem solving process and the use of different terminology.[18]

There are five rather broad steps which can be used to describe the sequence involved in the problem solving process as defined by Dewey and others. Each of these will be discussed at greater length in succeeding pages. They may be enumerated at this point, however, as part of the definition of the process:

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[16] Harris, *op. cit.,* p. 652.

[17] *Ibid.,* p. 169.

[18] Russell, *op. cit.,* p. 255-57.

1. Identification of the problem
2. Comparison of the present problem with previous experiences
3. Formulation of a tentative solution
4. Testing the tentative solution
5. Acceptance or rejection of the solution (evaluation).

These steps, logical as they may appear, are idealistically contrived attitudes concerned with the problem solving process. Children in the elementary school do not always follow this kind of sophisticated thought process. However, one of the goals of instruction in the social studies should be to foster and direct pupil attitudes toward a more logical and definite manner of problem solving.

Trial-and-error experiences are understandably a part of the problem solving process. In order to be effective, this kind of a solution must be accompanied by an evaluation of the trial experience and an understanding of the reasons for its success or failure. It is implicit that the experience, along with the solution or lack of solution, will become a part of the individual's ability to recall and to remember the factors involved. This assures that when the individual uses a more logical means to solve future problems, he will be able to utilize this entire experience toward a more rapid and effective solution.

Random trial-and-error activity in which the individual neither evaluates the courses of action nor profits from the trial experiences is a completely different matter. This type of behavior should be abandoned as quickly as possible as a means of solving problems.

Studies have shown that children, young children in particular, rely to a great extent upon trial-and-error solutions to their problems.[19] This clearly points out the role of the teacher. First, every effort must be made to help children evaluate and learn from their experiences. Second, learners must be shown that most trial-and-error solutions to problems are wasteful of time and energy. Third, the ulitmate goal of educators should be to help young people to learn, to use, and to condition their thinking toward, an economical and effective method of solving problems.

Emotion

The influence of emotion in the classroom has been discussed in countless professional publications. One non-technical definition of emotion is this: a response to a stimulus, usually resulting in physiological changes with a high degree of feeling.[20] This definition needs to be considered with the awareness that these strong feeling tones are indeed the distinguishing characteristic of emotion.

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[19] *Ibid.*, p. 272.

Emotion may either stimulate or inhibit constructive work in the classroom. Intense emotion tends to disrupt the performance of the individual through inhibiting or reducing his ability to evaluate his actions, by decreasing the probability of his discarding ineffective solutions to problems, and by inhibiting his introduction of other or novel solutions to the emotion-evoking situation.[21]

As the teacher seeks to understand each member of the group, and to utilize the characteristics of each member for maximum efficiency, he needs to realize that individual differences in emotion are as real and as important as are the differences in height, weight, capacity to learn, or any other physical or mental characteristic. These differences obtain in the ease with which emotion is aroused, the range of exciting stimuli, and the kind and quality of reaction to the emotion.

One characteristic of emotion is its variances among individuals; another is its developmental aspect. Increased knowledge and increased skill in successfully coping with threatening situations reduces the degree of emotion aroused by provocative situations and the ease with which the emotion is aroused. One of the great values of a well-conceived, well-conducted social studies program is the experience children can obtain in meeting situations which threaten their status. Here the role of the teacher is twofold: to protect the child from traumatic loss of status and of self-esteem, and to guide him toward the development of abilities and attitudes which will enable him to meet successfully increasingly difficult situations.

The changing pattern in categories of stimuli which provoke emotional response appears to be related to the age of the human being. Ausubel says that while certain changes "undoubtedly reflect specific family and cultural training with respect to when and under what conditions the expression of particular emotions are considered appropriate," many changes in the response pattern are due to neural maturation, training, and incidental experience.[22]

As children develop in their ability to project themselves into situations, the range of emotion-producing stimuli is increased. This phenomenon presents one of society's greatest opportunities for developing a desire to understand other peoples, a desire to assist other individuals, other nations. When the child or the adult can see himself as a member of a repressed minority, or as a citizen of an underprivileged nation, then he is in a position to invest some of himself in an effort to relieve the repression, or to elevate the status of the underpriveleged nation.

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[20] Good, Carter V. *Dictionary of Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951. p. 198.

[21] Harris, *op. cit.*, p. 448-54.

[22] *Loc. cit.*

Differences of reaction patterns are observable within families, within classes, within any group. Some of these differences are due to the success individuals have experienced in the use of various responses, and the values they attach to them. Generally, more overt responses such as striking, kicking, and crying tend to be reduced and to be replaced by autonomic responses. In the autonomic responses only the conscious or unconscious self can evaluate or criticize the response. The classroom teacher, in helping children develop appropriate patterns of emotional response, assumes a most important role, and one for which he generally has little specific training. On the one hand, the teacher attempts to lead children into identification with other individuals, with an understanding of the problems faced by them; on the other hand, the teacher attempts to limit the identification to a degree where objective consideration of many aspects of a particular problem remains possible.

The dual role of the teacher in the mental hygiene of the classroom is important: he is concerned (1) with the total emotional development of individuals in the class, and (2) with the emotional climate of the classroom as it fosters or inhibits the development of the concepts with which the work of the group is concerned. The importance of the teacher as the pupil strives to satisfy his needs of emotional security and status can hardly be overemphasized. Adaptations to stimuli of many kinds are being learned; the teacher must be sensitive to the dynamics of the group, of each individual, and provide guidance which will lead to the growth of those adjustments which promote the mental hygiene of the individuals comprising the class.

It is not the role of the teacher to develop an environment in which there is no tension; neither is it his role to develop one in which tension becomes so great that anxiety results. Tension is a part of learning; only as the organism seeks to reduce tension does learning occur. It is important that the teacher develop the ability to differentiate between tension and anxiety. Tension, one of the series of mental adjustments called learning, is requisite to changed behavior; anxiety, which may result from unrelieved or exaggerated tension, is at the source of functional behavior disorders.[23]

Carroll speaks of the attitudes learned in the classroom:

> Self-confidence, like anxiety and an attitude of inferiority, is learned. It is learned when the child in his home and in his school is given an opportunity to try out many new forms of behavior in an atmosphere of security. He realizes that of course he is going to fail occasionally, but he is confident, too, that his elders, on occasion, will help him understand why he fails. He appreciates also that they will help him succeed and will not insist on his trying to achieve goals which are beyond his reach. He faces tomorrow with confidence because he is confident today.[24]

In what curricular area is there greater opportunity to try new forms of behavior than in the social studies? In what other area is there greater opportunity for significant individual contribution at the level of individual competence? Given these significant opportunities, the teacher—as the one responsible, as the one most experienced—must see that the instructional group maintains a climate where error is acceptable, where individuals learn to criticize their own ideas first and then those of others without developing fear, with its attendant defense mechanisms. Jensen, writing of the role of the teacher in the power-structure of the group, says that the authority and power held by the teacher "can directly contribute to the intensity of fear that group members will experience."[25]

Achieving the Goals of the Social Studies Through Critical Thinking and Problem Solving

The Role of Critical Thinking in Problem Solving

Through the use of the process called critical thinking, that is, by examining the available data in an organized manner, comparing these data in terms of past experience, arriving at a hypothesis, verifying the hypothesis, and rejecting or applying the conclusion reached—individuals have at their command an effective and efficient technique for the solution of problems of many kinds.

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[23] Carroll, Herbert A. "Motivation and Learning: Their Significance in a Mental Health Program for Education." *Mental Health in Modern Education. Fifty-Fourth Yearbook,* Part II. Chicago: The National Society for the Study of Education, 1955. p. 80.

[24] *Ibid.,* p. 24.

[25] Jensen, Gale. "The Sociopsychological Structure of the Instructional Group." *The Dynamics of Instructional Groups: Sociopsychological Aspects of Teaching and Learning.* Fifty-Ninth Yearbook, Part II. Chicago: The National Society for the Study of Education, 1960. p. 102-103.

Many related experiences must be organized into some meaningful pattern to which the pupil can attach a label, so that it may be in usable form. This new mosaic is a *concept.* "Concepts," Russell says, "develop out of related perceptual experiences and as a result of the child's reorganization of experiences in a problem solving, creative way." Concepts, based on generalization and discrimination, enable the pupil to classify his experiences and to obtain meaning from them. The vital role of language is emphasized: "words are a greater help than other kinds of symbols in building up . . . a concept."[26]

Percepts may be likened to the water, sand, gravel, and cement assembled at a building site, while the completed concrete slab raised into place as a part of a wall is roughly analogous to a concept. What are some of the concepts which a pupil can use in the solution of a problem he faces? What qualities help to determine the appropriateness of particular concepts for a given child? If the validity of these questions is accepted, their correlate must also be accepted: concepts are susceptible of development, and this development is the proper function of the school. The general areas of concepts of value to the social studies program are as broad as the experiences which contribute to the growth of the pupil as he seeks to understand himself and his interrelationships with other persons. These include concepts of the self, of time and space, of mathematics, of interpersonal relationships, of moral values, of honesty, of geography—all of these, and more.

An adequate store of concepts, the *tool* of thinking, appears to be primarily dependent upon (1) many experiences and (2) language control which permits him to generalize some of his percepts into concepts. In the area of *interpersonal* relationships, of the ability to accept others with understanding, the influence of the home and groups of which the individual is a member is pre-eminent.[27] The role of the classroom as a determinant of social concepts is important to the degree that it becomes truly a *group* of which the pupils are members.[28] Awareness of problems within the social studies may be achieved in many ways: stimulation may arise from the room environment, through the use of an artifact, a study print, or a map; it may arise through the introduction of a guest who speaks of another culture. Research conducted by pupils themselves (perhaps in a textbook, the newspaper, other periodicals, or encyclopedia) as they seek answers to a present problem may bring an awareness of an area which is of vital importance to their work and about which they know little, if anything. Bringing pupils to see the importance of a problem is one of the proper functions of the teacher.

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[26] Russell, *op. cit.*, p. 117-18.

[27] *Ibid.*, p. 143.

[28] *Ibid.*, p. 251.

The minimizing of trial-and-error behavior is important, in part because it is wasteful of pupil time, but more importantly because of the danger of developing a habitual response of this type. This danger can be alleviated by making certain that the pupil has a clearly developed concept of the problem, that he has sound ideas of reference sources or of experimental procedures, that he has reference and/or experimental techniques appropriate to the task, and that he has acquired independence in the use of the techniques of the problem solving process.

Using Problem Solving To Develop Desirable Understandings and Attitudes

Attitude formation is a vital part of the social studies program. It is important to have clearly in mind the various kinds of attitudes which, although not mutually exclusive, must be considered in planning effective instruction in the social studies. One type of attitude can be described, for lack of a better terminology, as that relating to moral and spiritual values. Such attitudes or values as cooperation, generosity, honesty, kindness, respect for law, responsibility, and so on can be successfully taught as a part of social studies, as well as in other areas of the curriculum. Another kind of attitude relates specifically to the subject matter content of the various disciplines inherent in the social studies program. These attitudes, appreciations, or understandings can be taught most effectively through the social studies program. Examples of this kind of attitude are: (1) appreciation that people of all races, religions, and cultures have contributed to the heritage of mankind; (2) realization that change is a condition of human society; (3) understanding that all nations of the modern world are part of an interdependent system of economic, social, cultural, and political life.[29] It is important to recognize that moral attitudes and social attitudes are interrelated as an integral part of the social studies.

Utilization of the five steps in the problem solving process, (1) identification of the problem, (2) comparison of the present problem with previous experience, (3) formulation of a tentative solution, (4) testing the tentative solution, (5) acceptance or rejection of the solution, can lead to effective attitude formation. Examples of how these five steps are related to specific areas of the curriculum are found in the final section of this chapter. It becomes the task of the teacher and the school to provide many opportunities for children to become aware of desirable attitudes. An atmosphere in which the individual child can question, experiment, investigate is of prime importance. As the child learns of peoples of his own country and other countries, he discovers, for example, that all races, religions, and cultures have contributed to his heritage. The mere learning of facts will not develop desirable attitudes. The facts become the tools by which the pupil can discover the larger and vastly more important ideas which are recognized as vital in a free society.

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[29] *Report of the State Central Committee on Social Studies.* Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1959. p. 73-74.

Using Problem Solving To Develop Skills in the Social Studies

Today's society is dependent upon individuals who are prepared with the necessary skills for solving scientific and socioeconomic problems which are met by them as individuals, as members of local community groups, and as participants in city, state, and national organizations.

The elementary school is a laboratory in which children are encouraged to participate in activities which foster the development of problem solving techniques and skills. The social studies program provides for these experiences through the use of a wide variety of materials in situations which involve different ways of thinking, the use of skills developed previously, and opportunities to work both as individuals and as members of a group.

Since this section of the chapter relates to skills used in problem solving it is well that the skills be identified here. While the skills are many, for purposes of brevity some of them are grouped and are briefly discussed at this time.

Study skills. The study skills involved in the social studies include: *communication skills,* which enable the child to express his ideas orally or in writing; *acquisitive skills,* which involve intake of knowledge through reading, observing, and listening; *science skills,* which involve learning about such areas as plants and animals, the earth, space beyond the earth, and machines and energy; *mathematics skills,* as they relate to understanding time and space concepts and interpretation of quantitative information; *evaluation skills,* which are necessary in making value judgments and in being aware of what is happening to others as these judgments take place.

Skills in group working and living. While there are skills which can be gained independently there are other skills which can be learned only through working and living with a group. This category includes skills and abilities concerned with building desirable human relations. The teacher has a major task in helping the child to interpret and transfer the ideals and attitudes inherent in our democracy into his own behavioral traits.

The use of maps in problem solving. Maps and globes are used to solve many problems and to answer many questions that arise in units of work. In the primary grades, floor layouts, pictorial maps, and simple maps of the school, neighborhood, and community are used to show the location of key places and to extend concepts of direction, and of distance and space relationships. In the intermediate and upper grades they are used in connection with questions about area, location, distance, elevation, density of population, products, travel routes, rainfall, vegetation, and relationships between surface features and living conditions.[30]

The importance of map skills should not be underestimated. Learning to read and interpret a map or a globe is like learning a different language; special understandings, knowledges, and skills are involved. These skills are developmental as are skills in other areas of the curriculum. A good map, when read correctly, can save a considerable amount of time as opposed to reading many paragraphs involving the same content. Recognition of the lack of these skills has been increasingly apparent as the newspapers carry headlines of incidents happening in little-known geographical areas.

The following is an example of the way in which a need to use a map of the community was developed in the second grade.

During dramatic activities the children establish the working areas in their community. Two children decide to place their strawberry farms near the shopping center of the community. Some of the children object because during their discussions they have learned that farms are located in the outlying areas and that one does not grow strawberries next to or near a shopping center. The two children are reluctant to change the location of their farms. Thus, the problem is identified: Where are the truck farms located in the community? How can this community relationship be seen easily?

The children recall the opportunities in the first grade to construct their immediate community with floor blocks as materials. At that time they had also drawn the streets of the community on the floor with chalk. Necessary accessories had been constructed, such as homes, stores, moving vehicles, and others. In this way they learned about their immediate community. With this background of experience and with recall of content gained from the reference materials used, they decide that in order to clarify their understanding of where farms are located and why, they need to make a map.

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[30] Michaelis, John U. *Social Sudies for Children in a Democracy.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956. p. 267.

Since reference reading and dramatic and construction activities have aided the children in developing this present community, they have many completed or partly completed buildings and vehicles to use in their community. These include a market, the bank, post office, service station, buildings for a poultry farm, a flower farm, an orchard, and many kinds of trucks and equipment necessary for farming. As they approach this problem, they decide that further reference reading is needed to help them locate the strawberry farm. They find that strawberries are grown in somewhat diverse climates and that strawberry farms are near the coast, as well as in the San Gabriel and San Fernando valleys. They also learn about the climate and soil necessary for growing the most desirable kind of berry.[31] They take a field trip to observe the locations of some farms.

As the previous content and additional information are learned, the children decide that a community map may well be needed to illustrate relationships within the farm community. They make a map, using pictorial and semi-pictorial symbols. As they construct the map they review their knowledge of directions and orient themselves to planning the community. While the symbols they use are not mathematically in scale, they are indicated in size relationship. Large areas are larger, small things in the community are smaller in size.

Information, gained from the field trip and from talking with persons brought into the classroom to discuss farm locations, assists the children in placing the farms in their respective areas of the community.

When the map has been completed, they review the materials they have noted from reference reading, group discussions, and information gained from guest speakers and persons in the community. They observe the locations indicated on the map they have made. They conclude that the farm locations on the map will serve as guidelines for dramatic activities.

CRITICAL THINKING AND PROBLEM SOLVING AT VARIOUS GRADE LEVELS

This section develops problems which have grown out of the various areas of activity within the social studies curriculum and shows their development within the framework of the steps involved in critical thinking and problem solving.

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[31] *Small Farms: An Instructional Guide,* Publication No. EC-206. Los Angeles: Los Angeles City Schools, 1959. p. 122-71.

Problem Solving Within the Community

As the child enters the second grade, he has acquired some understanding of his immediate community and of the responsibilities of the people who live and work there. He is now ready and able to acquire a more detailed understanding of the activities of the ever-expanding community of which he is a part. The study of truck farms is particularly appropriate for the seven-year-old child, since he has a keen interest in, and curiosity about, living and growing things.

The study of truck farms and how the community secures its fruits and vegetables provides many opportunities for the child to learn about the production, processing, distribution, and consumption of truck farm products.

Identification of the problem. Children may recognize the need to learn about how the community secures its fruits and vegetables through becoming aware of the many problems and unanswered questions which have arisen in their dramatic activities relating to the community. Such questions may be: How does the market get its food? How does the farmer decide what to grow? How does the farmer care for his crops? How are crops harvested? How are fruits and vegetables processed for future use? As study in the area of interest progresses the teacher is aware of the need of the children to have every opportunity possible to express their ideas orally through conversation, discussion, and planning for action to be taken. Oral expression accompanied by firsthand experiences offers opportunities for children to develop the use of the materials of thinking which are basic to the different processes of thinking. A word of caution may be interjected here, that the children's experiences must be related and developed sequentially in order to contribute to the learning of organized content. Action in itself is not sufficient. The action must be meeting the needs of the children and within their experiental range. For children in the primary grades the activity or firsthand experience is frequently the springboard for additional tasks and needed information which is of greater depth and breadth.

The children's interest having been aroused and the problem questions having been recorded, it is the responsibility of the teacher to organize materials in the environment for children's use so that they may acquire information through manipulation, experimentation, research, and discovery. Opportunities would also be provided for children to participate in field trips to gain knowledge needed, or qualified members of the community may be requested to discuss the children's problems and/or questions with them.

Appropriate films, filmstrips, reference books, picture files, and story files will contribute considerably to a store of information the children will need in solving their problems. The viewing center using slides or filmstrips will contribute to the clarification of concepts and understandings, as well as the listening center which may utilize the tape recorder for the dissemination of information.

Comparison of the present problem with previous experiences. Following the identification of the problem and the recording of questions and ideas (so that all of the children's contributions may be considered and no information lost) it is necessary to compare the elements of the present problem with those encountered in the past.

Since the children will have been concerned with general community activities and the responsibilities of the persons involved, they will review and compare the facts they know about persons related to farming and indicate in what areas they need further information. It is important to note that problems do not just happen, the teacher must guide the children and create situations in which they occur.

> As children progress through many problem-solving processes in social studies, their accomplishments are twofold. First, they develop a fund of usable information and understandings about man and his relationship to his physical and social environment. . . . The second accomplishment is the skill developed in collecting and organizing information to reach understandings that are tentative and open to re-examination as new information comes to light.[22]

Formulation of a tentative solution. Many children will be equipped to offer fragments of ideas of how they think the community secures fruits and vegetables. Some will suggest that they come from the market, others that they come directly from the farms, others may even be aware of the wholesale market and what its function is. Still others may assume that produce is brought to the community only from distant places. As data are accumulated, they are discussed and recorded. Interplay in dramatic activities involving the use of materials constructed and information acquired will serve as a vehicle for clarifying understandings which are all or in part in error. Discussions will supply content to children in areas in which they lack understanding or hold erroneous concepts. They will gradually become aware of a sequential pattern in the securing of food.

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[22] Merritt, Edith. *Working with Children in the Social Studies.* San Francisco: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1961. p. 121.

They will begin to be aware of the kinds of farms that are involved in a community. They will begin to understand why the different farms are in certain locations. They will observe the equipment that is needed that is unique to one farm but not to another. They will also learn that some of the same equipment can be used on several different farms. Transportation vehicles will be built and used as understanding of functions of them are developed.

Testing the tentative solution. As children participate in dramatic activities they will now build their farms in areas which they can describe as being satisfactory areas in which the particular product can be grown successfully. For example, a strawberry farm which may have been placed anywhere in the community would be located where, according to the children, there are mild sunny days and cool nights, and where the soil is rich and moist, since these elements are important to the growing of the strawberry crop. Many science experiments can be conducted here. The children may plant and care for several strawberry plants. They would observe the soil, the temperature, and the water needed to aid plant growth. They might consider questions such as the following: Are the plants in the climate they need? What happens to plants and berries if growing conditions are not right? A comparison of climate and other elements necessary for desirable plant growth in local, desert, and mountain areas might be made.

References to a simplified map may be made, since children at this level will have had experiences in making maps of the community on the floor with blocks or on large paper on the bulletin board. These will have been done pictorially or with streets indicated, depending on the needs and level of the group.

As a result of engaging in experiences in science, arithmetic, and other academic subjects, children will become more efficient in applying the skills in these areas in the social studies. They will make use of all available resources provided by the teacher in the classroom, and through these skills and knowledges testing of the tentative solution may be done.

Acceptance or rejection of solution. When the children have completed their experiments, when they have discussed and recorded their findings on charts, maps, and in other ways, when they have reviewed all available materials, and when they have worked out aspects of the problem through dramatic activities, they are able to compare their original thinking with the data gained through study and research and are able to draw some conclusions concerning the location of sources of food for the community.

In future activities it is the teacher's responsibility to guide the children in using the new knowledge in interpreting community activities.

Problem Solving Within the City and State

One of the critical problems which all citizens of southern California face is that of trying to provide a continuing supply of water to meet the ever-increasing needs of the people. A study of this persistent problem is of concern to children who live in this area, and thus becomes a valid learning experience as a part of the middle grades curriculum in California schools.

Children are naturally curious about California's water needs. There are almost daily references to the subject in local newspapers, and national magazines devote considerable space to the topic. Motivation, therefore, need not become a difficult task when initiating an investigation of water shortages in the south. The study can be initiated through a planned room environment, through a newspaper or magazine article, or through a science activity. As children learn about rain or the water cycle, the water problems facing California can be a natural correlative field of inquiry.

This problem becomes a valuable educational experience when the children investigate it in terms of the five steps associated with the problem solving process.

Identification of the problem. Many children will be aware of the existence of the problem and may be able to verbalize it readily. As part of identifying the problem, children will want to discover on whose authority they are accepting the fact of the existence of the problem; they will want to learn the extent of the problem, if, indeed, there is a problem. They will want the answers to these questions: What are the water needs of southern California? What has caused the water shortage? What will be the needs in the future?

The answers to these questions—the process of identifying the problem and the process of getting sufficient data to be able to verbalize it—can be found in many ways. The primary source will probably be the editorials and articles in the local newspapers or in materials gathered from governmental agencies. Resource people from the Department of Water and Power will provide information on the subject. Reference books, textbooks, and other source materials will be used so that the children may be satisfied within their own minds that the problem does exist and that they are aware of its seriousness. With these data, the children will have no difficulty in stating the problem.

Comparison of the present problem with previous experiences. It is entirely possible that some children will have had little previous experience with the problem being considered. The amount of information an individual child will bring to this particular study will depend, of course, upon his maturity and experience. Most children, however, will recall from studies of previous years that water has always been needed in the southland. They probably will not have verbalized this as a problem before, but they will be aware of it. Previous experiences in learning about the harbor, the ocean, transportation of goods, marketing, and population growth will serve them when it is time to suggest tentative solutions.

Formulation of a tentative solution. In the initial stage of the investigation, many solutions will be offered. The less plausible solutions will be immediately rejected, but others will need careful investigation before an opinion is formed. Tentative solutions to the problem such as the following may be offered: using ocean water for agricultural purposes; converting ocean water into fresh water; transporting water from some other place (most children will recognize that historically this has been the solution to the water needs of Los Angeles); denying entry of additional people into California.

None of these solutions will be immediately rejected because they seem to be plausible. Probably early in the investigation the first solution, *i.e.*, using salt water for crops may be rejected as being impractical at present. The science implications involved in reaching this conclusion are apparent.

The third solution, that of bringing water from some other place, will be selected for further investigation. This was considered to be the best suggestion because a precursory examination of the other solutions indicated that perhaps the second might involve too much money, and that the fourth was undemocratic, causing undue hardships on people.

Testing the tentative solution. As a result of an investigation of the third suggestion, many rich experiences in all areas of the curriculum will unfold. It will be necessary to study geographical areas reasonably close to Los Angeles to determine if they have water in abundance and whether the water could be brought to the southland. Obviously, a great deal of map work will be involved. The class will study, in particular, the mountain regions in the northern part of the state. They will be faced with such questions as: How much water is available in northern California? Does the north need as much water as southern California? Does the north need as much water as it has? What will happen if the population of the northern part of the state expands rapidly in the next few years? Will there then be enough water to meet the needs of the people of California?

In all probability, the class will conclude that water from northern California could be brought to the southland. The problem then becomes one of how to bring the water to the south. The children will recall, from their primary grades experiences with transportation and community services, how some goods are brought to Los Angeles. They will remember that petroleum is carried in tankers. Could water be brought in water tankers similar to the ones used for petroleum? This question will activate a whole series of related questions: How much water could a tanker bring? How many tankers would there have to be to meet the needs? What would be the cost of transporting water by ship? Would this offer a permanent solution of the problem? How long would such a plan bring relief to southern California? In addition to providing the stimulus for many research activities, the answers to these and similar questions will become an obvious source of motivation for arithmetic, with children solving number problems which are of interest to them.

The children will compare the cost and efficiency of transporting water by boat with that of transporting it by other means. The use of canals or pipe lines will be suggested. Maps of California will be studied to determine a practical route for bringing water from the north. The class will discover that relief maps can be a valuable resource in this phase of the study. It will be necessary to determine the answers relative to: What is the terrain like between the north and the south? If water could be brought from the north in pipe lines or canals, which route would be the best? What are the distances involved?

An acceptable solution will still not have been reached. The class will need to read to find out if, historically, people in other lands have faced this problem. They will ask questions such as these: Were other people successful in solving water problems? If so, how did they solve them? Would their solution be applicable to the present problem? Other questions will arise: Do other people in the world today face a similar problem? Are other people today solving this problem? If so, how are they solving it? Would their solutions help us in Los Angeles?

Resource people from the Department of Water and Power may visit the classroom. They will bring facts and figures which will help the children to verify or to reject their various hypotheses. They will not force the children to accept any solution, but will present pertinent data which will help the children to themselves reject or accept a proposed solution.

Conservation and an awareness of civic responsibilities will play an important part of the investigation. The class will analyze water usage in the city. Such questions as these will arise: How can water be conserved? What are the responsibilities of citizens toward water conservation?

Thus it can be seen that the testing of the tentative solution has involved many activities and varied curriculum experiences. Solving number problems, using techniques of research, experimenting in science, reading maps and making maps, hearing resource people, reading and writing for information, discussing issues, and more, have been a part of the investigation. Many curricular areas have been brought into focus, providing meaningful and challenging experiences in science, arithmetic, geography, history, civics, language arts, conservation, and so on. The most important single experience, however, has been questioning. The children began with one question and soon found they had a dozen or more. The atmosphere of the classroom will decide whether or not the entire experience has been worthwhile, for questioning must not only be permitted, but encouraged. The teacher will serve to guide the class, not as a substitute encyclopedia with all the answers.

Acceptance or rejection of the solution. In this instance, the children will have accepted as being the most practical the solution as tentatively defined. The acceptance, however, came only after the children were finally convinced of its validity as based on the evidence which they had. They did not rely on any one authority. They questioned, they read, they listened, they sought answers from many quarters. When it came time to accept or reject their solution, they had considered many facts on which to form their conclusion. They were able to accept the solution, knowing full well that with the evidence they had gathered, it was the best of the solutions offered.

Problem Solving Within the Americas

The study of Latin America offers many opportunities for the solution of problems: similarities and differences in governmental structure, economic relations among the countries of the Americas, differing ethnic and cultural backgrounds. Inherent in each of these is not alone the alternatives of knowledge or ignorance, but of blind prejudice or informed understanding. One concept related to the study of Mexico at grade six is this:

> The people of Mexico and the United States have many common elements in their historical backgrounds. The people of both countries have contributed to our cultural heritage.[33]

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[33] *Mexico: An Instructional Guide,* Publication No. EC-202. Los Angeles: Los Angeles City Schools, Division of Instructional Services, 1959. p. 24.

Identification of the problem. An *awareness* of the problem—what cultural elements do we in the southwestern United States have in common with the people of Mexico, and what was the source of these elements—may be stimulated in many ways. An arranged classroom environment containing many pictures and objects of historical interest is one way. These might be arranged in typical bulletin board form; a time-line employing drawings or three-dimensional objects is another possibility; a third possible means of this stimulation would be films or filmstrips comparing some aspects of the life of Indians in the United States and in Mexico: their basketry, their pottery, their weaving. Verbalizing problems parallels stimulation in importance: only as they are labeled, only as pupils can handle these problems linguistically, do they become conceptualized to a degree that they are actually tools of thinking.

Perhaps the best way to accomplish this is to have at hand many resources (artifacts, study prints, textbooks, and tradebooks) and to encourage informal observation and discussion of things the pupils observe. As individuals note the similarities in designs of jewelry, the presence of known foods in the diet of the people of Mexico, the names of American companies on street signs in large cities of Mexico, they will come to realize that we now have many things in common.

Having established present cultural and economic ties, it is possible to move backward in time. Pupils can read from reference books or from materials developed by the teacher to learn about the cultural development of the Aztecs at the time of Cortez' arrival, comparing it with that of our plains Indians of the same period. Plays may be written or improvised to depict the life of an Aztec family of 1500. By this time the desire to know more about the history of both areas should be firmly established, easily verbalized, and finally specified into a series of questions or hypotheses. These might include such questions as: Why did the civilization of the Aztecs excel that of any North American people? Why did the Aztecs not move into the present United States and establish themselves as rulers? Why were the early Spanish explorers not successful in their efforts to explore what is now the southwestern United States? Why did the explorers and settlers of the southwestern United States not move southward into Mexico?

Comparison of the present problem with previous experiences. When basic questions have been formulated and written so that they may be available for future use, the second step of the problem solving process becomes important: comparing aspects of the present problem with previous experience. In this step the members of the class define

(1) what is already known, and (2) what additional information needs to be obtained through research.

Formulation of a tentative solution. A solution based on the difficulty of transportation and on geographic features may be advanced. Another child may have reached the conclusion that because the Aztecs had all they required there was no necessity to expand. Still others may have accepted the European demand for furs as the sole reason for the failure of our own explorers to push southward. Discussion of the different solutions projected by the class will elicit the need for additional research which will be, in effect, a testing of the tentative solutions.

Testing the tentative solution. It is at this point that the problem needs to be continually restated, using it as a criterion for the selection, acceptance, or rejection of information. Random trial-and-error activity must be discouraged at this point in the process. Here are unequalled opportunities to develop positive attitudes toward research, as well as basic skills and habits. The teacher has a fundamental responsibility to assure the availability of research materials commensurate with the levels of ability of the various members of the class. Without the needed materials, trial-and-error solutions are almost inevitable.

Information from many of the social disciplines such as anthropology, economics, history, sociology, etc., will have been gained as the class conducted research. The data found must be organized so that they may be applied to the solution of the problem. In solving the problem stated above, anthropological and geographical data might be basic. Additionally, knowledge of European history of the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries would be required. In the organization of the data, many skills may be practiced and developed: time lines may be developed and interpreted; maps and dioramas may be employed; pottery may be made; costumes and scenery may be made for dramatic representation of aspects of Indian life; reports may be written; data of many kinds may be presented in tables or on graphs. Always, the tentative solutions are evaluated against the information obtained through various research activities: do the newly discovered sources support the tentative solution, or do they show it to be in error?

Acceptance or rejection of solution. This is a vital part of the activity of the class as a dynamic group. It is not the responsibility of the teacher to say that certain solutions were right and certain ones wrong. This culmination of the problem solving activities of the class *must* result from class evaluation of the assembled data. It *is* within the proper role of the teacher to guide toward appropriate conclusions; however, authoritarian value judgments by the teacher can do great harm to the development of an inquiring mind in young children.

SOME GUIDELINES FOR TEACHERS IN DEVELOPING THE SKILLS OF CRITICAL THINKING AND PROBLEM SOLVING

The social studies teacher has a unique opportunity to assist pupils in developing attitudes which will permit them to approach a problem of social significance with objectivity, yet with empathy. While these favorable attitudes are being developed, the teacher is also concerned with developing the skills and abilities which make possible this action on the part of pupils. Some guidelines for the teacher as he stimulates and directs the growth of pupils toward these desired ends are:

1. Critical thinking is one aspect of the total thinking process; its development is based, in large part, upon the more generalized thinking process which is the concern of the teacher.
2. Effective thinking and the effective solution of problems is in part dependent upon the ability of the child to reconstruct parts of many experiences into a new thought unit, a "concept."
3. The development of concepts, and their use in the solution of problems, appears to be highly dependent upon the ability of pupils to verbalize these re-formed or re-grouped experiences.
4. The development of verbal facility in pupils is one of the most important tasks facing the teacher.
5. A problem must be recognized as such by an individual pupil.
6. Problem solving involves five rather broad steps: identification of the problem; comparison of the present problem with previous experiences; formulation of a tentative solution; testing the tentative solution; and acceptance or rejection of the solution.

   The solution of problems in the classroom should be continually approached through this procedure in order that pupils may have the opportunity to develop the habit of such an approach.
7. Pupils need to be challenged; however, they need to know that their inevitable failures will be met with understanding on the part of the teacher and of their peers. (The teacher should be continually aware of the danger of developing anxiety in pupils.)
8. The teacher should be aware of the importance of the sequence in the development of the study skills so that careful guidance may be given to pupils at all times.

SUMMARY

The child's ability to think is very closely associated with his growing up. It probably begins at the time he is born and continues to develop as he matures. Although there is a sequence of development in learning to think, the rate at which the child develops is his own as he progresses through the various stages.

As the child matures, he uses the many materials available to him for thinking, as percepts, images, memories, and concepts. These materials assist him as he develops the ability to use the various processes: perceptual thinking, associative thinking, inductive-deductive thinking, critical thinking, problem solving, and creative thinking.

Many and varied experiences are vital to the development of thinking as they contribute to the breadth and depth of the process the child is using.

Critical thinking, which apparently can be developed through classroom procedures, is one aspect of the general phenomenon of "thinking." It includes elements of problem solving and judgment making.

Problem solving is composed of the application of a number of abilities, such as remembering, perceiving, recalling, associating, generalizing, and reconstructing ideas. While stylized adherence to its formal steps is not desirable, practice in its procedure *is* desirable.

Emotion may either stimulate or inhibit constructive work in the classroom. Intense emotion, whether caused by over-identification with a problem or over-stimulation by teacher or peers, is undesirable, as it tends to reduce the effectiveness of the individual.

Through the use of critical thinking individuals possess an efficient technique for the solutions of problems of many kinds. A "tool" of critical thinking is the concept the pupil constructs out of parts of many experiences, and to which he is able to attach a label. Concepts enable the individual to classify his experiences and to obtain meaning from them.

Problem solving can be employed to develop desirable understandings and attitudes; some of these may be taught effectively in more than one curricular area, while others appear to be taught most economically in the social studies.

Social studies skills, such as map reading, are necessary to the efficient solution of problems and are taught meaningfully within a problem solving situation.

Critical thinking is one of many skills which may be developed in and through the social studies program as the skillful teacher helps pupils to identify and solve meaningful problems. The attitudes and habits which result from success in such problem solving activities will contribute to the development of an effective citizenry.

Section Two: Communication Skills in the Social Studies

Faith Murdoch, Elmer F. Pflieger, and Gertrude Whipple

The social studies create a genuine need for efficiency in communication—in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. By attentive listening to conversations, explanations, discussions, and reports in a social studies class, the child adds to his concepts and interests. Listening as directions are given for studying the landscape, maps, audio-visual aids, and reading matter helps him to improve his procedures in independent activities.

Through explaining to others his observations, discoveries, and social studies learnings, the child clarifies them and facilitates retention. Oral activities also tend to fix in his mind the somewhat technical vocabulary of the social studies. Increasing skill in putting his questions into words enables him to elicit desired information and thus add to his knowledge.

Through the application of many reading and study skills, the child gains information, checks ideas obtained from field work or class discussion, gathers ideas that will aid in the solution of a problem, identifies questions for further study, and enriches his experience in the social studies. By engaging in wide reading in school and public libraries, he gains lasting interests in adding to his social studies background and knowledge. Skill in the use of library aids, such as reference books and the card catalog, gives him unlimited opportunities for advancing his research and study.

Through keeping written records of various kinds, the child makes the results of his studies available for future use. He lists his plans for field study, records notes, and makes explanatory diagrams, written outlines, and summaries, and makes and draws maps to clarify his presentation to an audience. For these purposes he is encouraged to use correct spelling, legible handwriting, and the many skills essential to good written expression.

Attention to communication skills in teaching the social studies

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This section was reviewed by Miles E. Beamer, Supervisor of Social Studies, Detroit Public Schools; Helen Bjorklund, Thea Collier, and Miriam Woodle, Librarians, Book Exchange, Department of School Libraries, Detroit Public Schools; Mildred A. Dawson, Professor of Education, Sacramento State College, Sacramento, California; Stanley E. Dimond, Professor of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

yields rich returns in subject matter outcomes; for the more efficient the child is in the use of these skills, the more easily he can acquire social studies concepts; and the more concepts built in the social studies, the more effective will the child be in the communication of ideas.

The following outline presents a graded list of the common communication skills taught in grades 1 through 8. Of course, this grading of the skills will need to be adjusted to meet the needs and the individual differences of the particular pupils. Besides, the maintenance of a skill is fully as important as cultivating it in the beginning; and it is assumed that any particular skill will be introduced and further utilized whenever it is needed.

SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS

I. Primary grades, 1-3. The child:

1. Participates increasingly in informal conversation, taking his turn, listening with courtesy, and saying something of interest (e.g., as children inspect a display table or new books on a unit).
2. Contributes to group and class discussion, showing increasing ability to listen thoughtfully, to stay with the topic, and to ask pertinent questions.
3. Asks and answers simple questions with increasing skill, determining what information is wanted, wording the question to obtain a clear answer, making brief statements that are to the point (e.g., before, during, or after a field trip; or visit of a guest speaker).
4. Follows simple directions, listening intently, noting the sequence of steps, and being sure he understands the directions before trying to carry them out (e.g., directions for a project such as preparing a bulletin board on animals that graze; recording on a slate or plastic globe Columbus' route when he discovered America).
5. Gives short, clear oral reports, sticking to his subject, using good, clear language of his own, and presenting ideas worth listening to (e.g., explaining a social studies concept, how something is done, or what was learned from a travel story).
6. Shows skill in social situations (e.g., inviting a parent to tell of a country he has visited, inviting another class to see a dramatizaton or hear reports of what has been learned; using the telephone to obtain needed information).
7. Attends a radio or television program, listening attentively

for a specific purpose (e.g., for general background on wild animals; to learn what some other part of the world looks like; to enjoy a historical story).

II. Intermediate grades, 4-6. The child:
   1. Makes an effort to get interesting material for conversation (e.g., through observing, listening, interviewing, and reading both in and out of school).
   2. Speaks clearly and directly, using appropriate social studies vocabulary with understanding and correct pronunciation.
   3. Notes discrepancies and gaps in the information his classmates offer orally.
   4. Differs courteously with the views of others; when necessary, gives evidence from authorities in support of his own view.
   5. Asks pertinent questions to gain understanding and to draw out the reticent and unresponsive pupil; does not monopolize the discussion.
   6. Accepts increasing responsibility for the reasonableness and accuracy of what is said.
   7. Times his contribution so that it relates to what has preceded and carries the discussion forward; contributes to real thinking together.
   8. Gives accurate directions for locating a place on the globe or map.
   9. Gives particular attention to time expressions such as "meanwhile," "a decade," and "ancient," and to the location of the places being discussed.
   10. Listens for important facts and ideas to be remembered; tries to retain these.
   11. Serves successfully as a discussion leader, both of small groups and of the entire class (e.g., draws out the ideas of classmates, keeps the discussion progressing, summarizes the main ideas).
   12. Outlines and organizes ideas in advance of giving an oral report.

III. Upper grades, 7-8. The child:
   1. Follows the thought of the speaker; listens with an open mind; thinks through and weighs the ideas; grasps significant facts and ideas.
   2. Uses social studies language effectively to explain, to describe, to inform, and to narrate.
   3. Uses material from an increasing variety of sources in both conversations and discussions.

4. Points out false ideas and inadequacies of facts clearly and calmly.
5. Brings discussion back to the subject by restating the problem for clarification.
6. Changes the topic of conversation tactfully if it becomes unpleasant or unproductive for the class.
7. Interrupts courteously and sets others on the right tract when points are misinterpreted.
8. Gives brief, concise summaries of what is heard.
9. Makes more detailed outlines preparatory to giving an oral report (e.g., lists topics and subtopics in proper sequence for presentation); reorganizes and restates information in his own words.
10. Uses simple parliamentary procedures efficiently (e.g., presides over a group discussion, carries out duties of class officers, participates in making decisions by voting orally and in writing, abides by the results, understands the points of views of minorities).
11. Conducts an interview with an adult in his home or at his place of business (e.g., introduces himself, states the purpose of the interview, asks questions in meaningful sequence, takes notes, expresses appreciation for the interview).
12. Organizes and presents the findings of an interview, giving an interesting and enlightening account of what was learned.

READING SKILLS

I. Primary grades, 1-3. The child:
   1. Locates needed material within books (e.g., locates stories by examining the table of contents; peruses material to find the answer to a question; indicates it by placing a marker in the book).
   2. Understands and interprets short, easy-to-read social studies material (e.g., recalls important concepts as a background for understanding; recognizes the meanings of words; reflects on what is read; rereads when necessary).
   3. Reads orally to an audience with accuracy, fluency, and understanding (e.g., to present new ideas, prove a point, answer a question).
   4. Reads extensively with pleasure and interest simple stories containing the travel element and easy informational accounts.

II. Intermediate grades, 4-6. The child:

    1. Makes use of simple bibliographies in locating social studies material.
    2. Locates needed references on shelves in a children's library.
    3. Finds sources of social studies material by using the table of contents, index, and list of maps.
    4. Evaluates a book in terms of the purposes for which it is needed (e.g., Does it give enough material to satisfy the purpose? How recent is this material? What questions does it leave unanswered?).
    5. Understands social studies material of appropriate difficulty and interprets it accurately (e.g., knows words that are more or less unique to social studies; gathers ideas from the accompanying maps, charts, diagrams, and illustrations).
    6. Follows the logical organization of a simple social studies selection (e.g., notes topic headings, uses them as aids in comprehension and selection of central ideas, sees paragraph organization, recognizes the progression of ideas).
    7. Skims and reads material rapidly as an aid in selecting important ideas to remember.
    8. Organizes the ideas in relation to the question or other purpose of the reading.
    9. Reads widely with interest and understanding narrative and other materials of suitable reading difficulty, including children's literature on the subjects being studied.

III. Upper grades, 7-8. The child:

    1. Finds sources of material by using the parts of a book including simple appendices and items mentioned in II—3 above; consults bibliographies at the ends of chapters in social studies books.
    2. Uses efficiently atlases, geographic handbooks, yearbooks, and other references such as *The World Almanac* and yearbooks of the Department of Agriculture.
    3. Locates material through the use of the car catalog in elementary and junior high school libraries.
    4. Checks sources of information for reliability on such bases as competence and objectivity of author, sources of data, etc.
    5. Adapts his reading techniques to his purposes for reading.
    6. Understands and interprets accurately tables and graphs found in social studies material.
    7. Thinks critically concerning the ideas given in social studies material; begins to recognize propaganda and bias.

8. Reaches valid generalizations on the basis of material read; applies these in interpreting new content.
9. Synthesizes information from several sources for his own use; classifies the pertinent facts and ideas in a desired order.
10. Makes more elaborate preparation for giving a report (e.g., carries on wide reference reading; studies pertinent maps and data such as rainfall or temperature data; makes notes of ideas to be remembered; decides upon the best form for the report—outline, narrative, or exposition).
11. Reads widely for information as well as pleasure.

Study Skills

I. Primary grades, 1-3. The child:
   1. Follows directions to locate information in classroom books (e.g., turn to page 26, find the picture of the fireman).
   2. Works and studies successfully by himself or in a small group as required by the study situation or the directions of the teacher.
   3. Alphabetizes items according to first letters (e.g., forest, fog, highway, health).
   4. Begins to use children's encyclopedias to satisfy curiosities (e.g., pictures of airplanes, old cars, people in other lands).
   5. Reads simple picture maps, giving information about a place or region (e.g., the public buildings in our town, the kinds of crops on our farms).
   6. Interprets pictures in simple library books and in classroom textbooks (e.g., pictures of workers and their activities).
   7. Sees the connection between reading matter and the accompanying illustrations.
   8. Interprets symbols and signs met in everyday living (e.g., stop and go signals, super-market and gas station signs).

II. Intermediate grades, 4-6. The child:
   1. Uses the table of contents to see whether a book covers a broad general topic (e.g., Africa, transportation, Indians).
   2. Uses the index to locate specific information (e.g., Nile River in a book on Africa, airplanes in a book on transportation, Iroquois in a book on Indians).
   3. Uses the dictionary for help in spelling and for definitions of new words (e.g., Does torrid have one or two r's? What is the meaning of reservoir?).

4. Uses the almanac to locate specific information (e.g., population of New York City, salary of the President).
5. Makes accurate alphabetical listings (e.g., fog, forest, health, highway).
6. Interprets pictorial maps, charts, and graphs presenting facts about a country or a region (e.g., population, products, natural resources).
7. Consults a variety of materials to locate needed information (e.g., highway maps, travel folders, and scenic pamphlets).
8. Reads the captions of pictures, charts, and graphs for a fuller understanding of pictorial materials.
9. Sees the relationship between personal and individual study and the work of the group (e.g., fits an individual report into a unit of study of the class).
10. Listens carefully to study directions as they are given (e.g., asks only for explanations of directions, not a repetition of them).
11. Makes note of the important items in classroom assignments.
12. Takes notes successfully for future study or reference (e.g., from reading or from reports given by other children).

III. Upper grades, 7-8. The child:

1. Knows the more general sources of information, turns to them for needed data, and uses them intelligently (e.g., dictionary, encyclopedia, almanac).
2. Distinguishes between sources of information and selects the proper one to locate specific data (e.g., almanac and encyclopedia).
3. Reads and uses special graphs and charts (e.g., charts and graphs of population, rainfall, government expenditures).
4. Uses captions and accompanying reading matter for a complete understanding of pictorial materials (e.g., always reads the caption when studying a chart).
5. Makes graphs and charts to illustrate concepts and to convey information to others (e.g., a circle graph of the sources of the tax dollar, a bar graph to show the population growth of the United States).
6. Begins to use adult periodicals such as news magazines, to get current information on a topic; reads editorials.
7. Discriminates among several newspapers with respect to reliability of news coverage (e.g., reads accounts of the same events in several newspapers).

8. Keeps notes for future reference for reports and study (e.g., notes from reading of library materials).
9. Budgets time wisely (e.g., daily budgeting of time to complete daily study, weekly or monthly budgeting of time to meet deadlines on projects and reports).

LIBRARY SKILLS

I. Primary grades, 1-3. The child:

1. Identifies the letters of the alphabet and learns their proper sequence (as a preliminary skill essential in using dictionaries, encyclopedias and other materials which are alphabetically arranged).
2. Arranges simple words or names by the initial letter.
3. Uses alphabet books and picture dictionaries.
4. Handles books carefully in removing them and returning them to the shelves.
5. Holds books properly (e.g., large picture books flat on the table).
6. Turns pages correctly (e.g., by upper right hand corner of page).
7. Uses a book mark to mark his place in a book.
8. Understands a simple classification of books on the library shelves (e.g., "Easy," "Picture," "Easy Fiction," and "Fairy Tales").
9. Locates these books on the shelves by the classification number on the spine of the book (e.g., E, P, EF, 398).
10. Recognizes the title page in a book.
11. Identifies pertinent information on the title page (e.g., author, title, illustrator, publisher).
12. Demonstrates good citizenship by sharing books, respecting the rights of other children and by assuming his share of responsibility for making the room a pleasant place in which to read and work.

II. Intermediate grades, 4-6. The child:

1. Applies his knowledge of the alphabet to facilitate the use of reference books.
2. Identifies the parts of a book (e.g., the table of contents, index, glossary, list of illustrations and maps, appendix, preface, and introduction).
3. Uses the foregoing information as he seeks material for assignments from his classrooms.

4. Uses the dictionary to obtain information about words (e.g., definition, spelling, syllabication, and pronunciation).
5. Shows a growing understanding of the special features of the dictionary (e.g., gazetteer, special plates, obsolete words, foreign words, biographical dictionary, abbreviations, and phrases).
6. Begins to use the Dewey Decimal Classification scheme to locate books in the library (e.g., all ten general classifications, with some specific sub-headings such as: 910 Geography, 973 U.S. History).
7. Locates entries in the card catalog and interprets them correctly (e.g., author, title, subject, "See" and "See Also" cards).
8. Begins to use the classification number on the catalog card to locate books on the shelves.
9. Uses children's encyclopedias efficiently in locating and gathering information (e.g., becomes familiar with arrangement, scope, contents, illustrations, indexes, cross-references, letter-guides, and special features).
10. Consults more than one encyclopedia to compare material on the same subject; notes the copyright date whenever up-to-date information is sought.
11. Assumes greater responsibility in the care and maintenance of library resources.
12. Learns to use some of the resources of the public library.

III. Upper grades, 7-8. The child:

1. Locates place names and statistical information in atlases and gazetteers.
2. Understands the arrangement, scope, and use of different kinds of atlases (e.g., geographical, political, historical).
3. Uses the glossary of geographical terms.
4. Uses specialized maps and charts (e.g., airways, world explorations, tables of oceans, mountains, climate, races, resources).
5. Uses the index or lists of maps in an atlas to locate the required map.
6. Uses reference books that supply concise information about places, things, events, people, and progress (e.g., handbooks, almanacs, yearbooks, and manuals: *The World Almanac, Information Please Almanac, Statesmen's Yearbook, Statistical Abstract of the U.S.*, municipal manuals, state manuals); notes whether material is up-to-date.

7. Uses special indexes to locate poetry, plays, and short stories (e.g., Brewton's *Index to Poetry* and *Subject and Title Index to Short Stories for Children,* published by The American Library Association).
8. Consults current materials as sources of information (e.g., newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, clippings, pictures, bulletins).
9. Uses lists and bibliographies on current subjects.
10. Discovers sources of free and inexpensive materials.
11. Examines and evaluates newspapers as source of information (e.g., compares several newspapers; learns to evaluate coverage, editorial policy, special features, propaganda, sources).
12. Consults a variety of magazines for reference (e.g., pictorial, scientific, news, literary, special).
13. Locates needed material in magazines through use of the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature.*
14. Consults many different sources of biographical information (e.g., books, dictionaries, encyclopedias, directories, yearbooks, Webster's *Biographical Dictionary, Current Biography, Who's Who in America*).
15. Selects information pertinent to a problem (e.g., makes a plan for selecting information before starting to read; decides how information is to be used; reads material through quickly to see if it is appropriate; re-reads the material and takes selective notes).
16. Records information efficiently (e.g., identifies topic sentence in each paragraph; identifies key words that support topic sentence; records only pertinent ideas).
17. Demonstrates maturity by his consideration of others and his independence in finding and using a wide variety of materials.
18. Uses the resources of the public library intelligently.

Writing Skills

I. Primary grades, 1-3. The child:
   1. Dictates ideas in such form that the teacher can record them on the board (e.g., captions for pictures, maps, diagrams; lists of items such as the seasons and ways men make a living; experience records).
   2. Copies written material accurately; adds an original sentence

or two, on occasions, to make the material his own (e.g., a group composition; a short letter written to ask permission for a trip; questions to be answered from observations made outside of school).

3. Does own writing with the teacher's help in deciding what to say and how to say it, in spelling words correctly, using capital letters, and simple punctuation marks where needed (e.g., one, or a few, new facts learned; directions for reaching his home; explanatory labels for articles on exhibit).
4. Contributes ideas for more ambitious forms of writing which the teacher and children together compose on the board (e.g., field trip, standards to guide a discussion).

II. Intermediate grades, 4-6. The child:

1. Develops a sense of order or sequence in thinking and the writing that follows.
2. Does original writing with the teacher's guidance (e.g., stories about the dairy farmer or what I know about the oceans of the world).
3. Copies material correctly when needed (e.g., notebook record; quotation to be read to the class).
4. Prepares good written explanations to accompany maps, exhibits, and models (e.g., displays for Open House).
5. Uses suitable expression for various purposes (e.g., when preparing a list, includes similar items only; uses the right form and tone for a thank-you note; writes sentences to give summary statements of facts).
6. Makes increasing use of self-help materials such as simplified dictionaries, English textbooks for matters of form (e.g., report on an interview, record of observations made, business letter).
7. Keeps accurate records for particular purposes (e.g., of rainfall measured in a pail left outside, of temperatures, of interviews, of books read in preparation for a report).
8. Makes adequate preparation for written reports (e.g., rough notes based on observations and reading, a simple plan for the writing).
9. Checks his writing and corrects errors so far as possible before seeking the teacher's help.

III. Upper grades, 7-8. The child:

1. Cooperates effectively in the preparation of written reports, working with one or more classmates (e.g., contributes to the report; reads it critically; corrects parts that are not clear;

considers best form of statements; corrects mis-spellings; selects illustrations, maps, models, and the like to make the report more concrete; times the report; cuts it if necessary).

2. Makes more elaborate preparation for writing a report (e.g., carries on wide reference reading; studies pertinent maps and data such as rainfall or temperature data; makes notes of ideas to be remembered; decides upon the best form for the report such as outline, narrative, or exposition).
3. Shows less dependence upon the teacher in his own written composition and gradually improves it (e.g., better paragraph construction, ability to write a longer composition, improved titles, more precise use of words, greater range of social studies ideas).
4. Makes simple, needed bibliographies in good form (e.g., author, title, pages, copyright date).
5. Habitually proofreads and corrects his own writing before submitting it to the teacher.

Section Three: Group Work Skills

Kenneth Rehage

Significant learning in the social studies may occur in a variety of contexts in the elementary school. Much of it can and should occur as a result of individual inquiry on the part of the pupil. Much can and should occur as a result of work done by the class as a whole. There are also important learning tasks which require the cooperative effort of pupils working in small groups. This section of the Yearbook deals explicitly with the conditions and skills required for effective group work in the social studies classroom.

The basic rationale for developing skill in group work derives from the idea that the successful achievement of many purposes, both in school and outside school, demands cooperative action of several individuals. Cooperative action that is successful in turn depends upon a variety of skills on the part of participating individuals. Such skills, like other skills, are learned through practice. The school is a particularly appropriate place to get the needed practice. Some of the school subjects, like the social studies, can provide situations which are particularly well suited for practice in the application of group work skills.

It is also important to note that instruction in the social studies, as in other elementary school subjects, occurs in a group setting. Recent studies have emphasized that the effectiveness of learning depends in no small measure upon the climate of the group. This appears to be the case even when the class is working on a task that is not essentially a group task. In a setting where pupils give to and receive from each other support and encouragement in their efforts to master certain learning tasks, the learning is apt to be appreciably greater than in cases where pupils are indifferent toward each other's achievement.

When a class is engaged in a task that is a genuine group task, opportunities are provided for nurturing individual development. For example, an individual who becomes deeply involved in a significant group enterprise, and who contributes to that enterprise, gains confidence in himself because of his contribution. He achieves a kind of psychological identification with the group. He senses the extent to which the group depends upon him, and finds in this fact a source of motivation to accept and discharge his responsibilty as a group member. At the same time, he has an opportunity to develop respect for other members of the group whose work helps the group to progress. Through a series of such experiences a pupil can assess his own strengths and weaknesses, find new roles for himself, and at the same time recognize the roles that others can perform in a group enterprise.

It is clear that the learning of group skills has value both for the class as a whole and for the individuals in the class. But this learning can hardly be justified as an end in itself. It is valued primarily because it can contribute to larger goals, to goals which will be achieved more effectively through group action than through individual action alone. Emphasis on group activities in the social studies classroom should reflect their usefulness as means to reach goals which cannot be attained as well through other means.

GROUP WORK REQUIRES CERTAIN CONDITIONS

Certain conditions are required if the benefits of group work are to be fully realized in an elementary school classroom. It is important, for example, that an assigned group task be clearly related to the work in which the class is involved. When this relationship is clear, to pupils as well as to the teacher, the pupils can see how the work of the group will contribute to the larger enterprise. Pupils should be able to recognize not only the importance of what they are doing, but also to see why it is desirable to pursue the task through some kind of group activity.

A second important condition for effective group work is that the group task should make a sufficiently wide range of demands to utilize the diverse talents and resources present within the group. Such demands establish the necessity for cooperative group action. Pupils will see that the job is too great for one person, or that it requires a variety of talents rarely found in one person. When some degree of specialization is utilized for carrying out a learning assignment, it is likely that individual achievement and satisfaction with the group effort would be maximized, as Jensen[34] has pointed out. Conversely, a "group" learning task which does not allow for a division of labor is hardly justified as a group enterprise. If all members of the group are doing virtually the same job, it is difficult to see the need for the group. Such a task, in all likelihood, could be done as well if not better by persons working individually.

A third important condition for effective group work pertains to relationships between group members. These relationships must be such that most of the energies of the group are directed toward the group task rather than diverted into activities necessary to resolve internal group problems. In any group there are problems of interpersonal relationships which must be solved before the group will be able to mobilize its resources effectively to deal with its assigned task. A task-oriented group will have found ways of resolving its internal conflicts, at least to the point where such conflicts will not unduly impede the achievement of the group task or the instructional goal. It clearly requires patient effort, on the part of teacher and pupils, to reach the stage where the relationships among group members rarely, if ever, constitute a serious threat to group productivity. One way to hasten development along these lines is to provide opportunity for children to have frequent and successful experience with small but significant group tasks. Such experience helps to create a group climate in which there is a high degree of social acceptance among group members, and acceptance based upon a recognition of each individual's potential for contributing effectively to the group task.

A fourth condition for effective group work is that membership in the group should be based upon both willingness and ability to participate in the enterprise in which the group is engaged. This condition is obviously difficult to satisfy when one thinks of the class as a whole, but it can be satisfied more readily when constituting subgroups within a class. One assumes here, of course, that the general nature of the task to be assigned to a group is reasonably well defined prior to the setting up of the group. Group membership can then be based primarily upon the interest of the individual pupils in the task and upon their ability to undertake some significant aspect of the work. Some teachers favor setting up sub-groups on the basis of some kind of sociometric criterion, such as pupils' stated preferences for co-workers for a committee assignment. If these preferences are based upon a conviction that the named persons would in fact be effective in the given assignment, a productive working group can be so formed. If, however, the choices result in mere friendship groups there is at least a likelihood that energies needed for the work task may be diverted to activities in support of the friendship relations.

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[34] Jensen, Gale, "The Sociopsychological Structure of the Instructional Group." *The Dynamics of Instructional Groups.* Fifty-Ninth Yearbook, Part II. Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education, 1960. p. 88.

A fifth important condition for effective group work relates to the size of the group. Ideally the group should include only as many members as are needed to accomplish the task. Too small a membership can result in conditions that are frustrating, for there is more to be done than can reasonably be accomplished in the time allotted. On the other hand, too large a group may lead to a condition where there is not enough work to go around, with the result that some members will not have the opportunity to make constructive use of their time.

Problem Solving in Group Situations

Thus far attention has been directed toward some of the conditions necessary for effective work in groups. Underlying all of this discussion is the general notion that such groups will be concerned with some kind of problem. The activities of the group, then, will in a large measure be problem solving activities. It becomes appropriate to inquire, therefore, about the nature of problem solving activities that take place in group work.

Problem solving behavior in group situations is not essentially different from such behavior when performed by individuals. Perhaps the most important aspect of group problem solving occurs in the planning stage, for here the group maps out its general approach to the problem in hand. A second stage is one which involves the execution of the plans, and at this point the group may be working together or each of the members may be working quite independently on an assigned task. A third stage in group work occurs when the work of all members is brought together in such a way as to complete the assignment. Finally, a group may engage in some effort to appraise its own work.

Among the skills required in effective planning, whether individually or in groups, are the ability to see the various aspects of the problem at hand and to define the problem clearly. One of the distinct advantages in a group approach to working on a given problem is that the various members of the group will often see different aspects of the problem. Some will be able to define it only in a limited way, while others can see the problem in a much broader context. In this manner, the experience of all members of the group can be brought to bear on the problem in the planning stage. A second skill involved in planning is the ability to see alternative courses of action to take with respect to the problem as defined. Here again the advantage of the group is that it often can identify more possible courses of action than one individual would identify. A third skill related to planning is closely related to the second, for it invokes the ability to anticipate probable consequences of any given alternative course of action. Finally, in the planning stage the group must select the course or courses of action most likely to accomplish the goal of the group.

In a group situation these skills related to planning must be applied in a context that presents problems of a somewhat different sort than when the planning is done individually. Members of a group must develop a disposition to listen to the suggestions of others, to recognize the merits as well as the limitations of such suggestions, to identify precise points of conflict when conflict arises, to effect a compromise between opposing views, and to accept such compromises so that the group can proceed. All these behaviors call for a considerable measure of objectivity. In this respect pupils are likely to differ from each other as widely as in other characteristics. Some pupils exhibit striking talents for resolving differences within a group while others neither display such ability nor seem concerned about the problems created when conflict arises.

Planning also involves identification of sub-problems which then need to be distributed among various members of the group for action. This calls for a willingness to assume particular responsibilities, even though the one assigned by the group may not have been the member's first choice. In short, there are many occasions in the planning stage of a group enterprise where the individual needs to subordinate his own desires to those of the group. Likewise, there are frequently occasions when one needs to press his own point of view on a given issue because the logic of the case in on his side. These situations are the prototypes of many others that young people will often face in school and in life. To handle them well requires respect for others and concern for the group enterprise.

When the planning phase of a group project has been completed, the group can turn to activities involved in the execution of the plans. In some instances each member's task can be undertaken independently, with only the requirement that he accept the responsibility of completing his assignment within agreed upon time limits. This is very likely to be the case where a committee has been asked to report to the class as a whole on various phases of a particular subject. In other instances the carrying out of one's responsibility involves working closely with one or more other persons. Such work may take the form of making a mural, or making a collection of objects relevant to the committee's task, or perhaps making a model of a Roman temple. Working closely with other persons on such a project involves the responsibility of doing one's own share of the job and at the same time accepting and respecting the efforts of others.

Regardless of the requirements for the execution of a particular set of plans, there are certain responsibilities that each group member needs to accept and discharge. Where materials are needed for his work he must see that they are available. He must discipline himself to stay with the task until it is completed. He must use his time with maximum effectiveness, not only for the sake of finishing his own task but because the progress of the entire group project is dependent upon the fulfillment of each individual commitment. It is again evident in the execution of a group project, as in the planning, that an individual must be mindful of the group responsibility, not merely of his own.

At some point it is usually necessary for members of a group to bring together the results of their labor, to organize their material for some kind of presentation to the class as a whole, or to engage in some other kind of activity which in essence marks the formal conclusion of the group enterprise. Here again the job should be defined in such a way as to make it possible for each member of the group to share in this concluding phase of the work. Problems frequently arise at this point. Some pupils may make very significant contributions to a group task but they have neither the skill nor disposition to participate effectively in any form of reporting of their work. Others may have contributed little but are perfectly willing to accept the recognition that comes from reporting on behalf of the entire group. In such situations it is important for the teacher to be guided by the major objectives of the class work and by the interpretations of those objectives that the teacher believes appropriate for each child. If the major purpose of the group work is to get certain information to the entire class, the teacher would normally work with the group to see that the presentation was as effective as it could be. If, on the other hand, the group task is one where the teacher can afford to be less concerned with the substance of the report and more concerned with the pupils' skill in making oral presentations the likelihood is that each student should have some part in the proceedings in order to get needed practice.

In the evaluation phase of a group enterprise the essential question is "Did the group accomplish its major purposes?" This kind of question often leads to a further consideration of how the group might have done a more satisfactory job. At the conclusion of any group work, whether in school or out, group members engage in some kind of appraisal. This may be done privately to oneself, or perhaps publicly to a few close friends. This kind of appraisal, as informal as it tends to be, is likely not to be very useful in helping individual members of a group to become more effective in group work. On the other hand, a realistic appraisal by group members of their achievements will reveal strengths in their results, in which all can take pride, and opportunities for improvement, which constitute a challenge for the next group task. Obviously, the attempts to make some kind of evaluation should be systematic rather than perfunctory, and it is best carried out when the results can be checked against previously determined standards for group work. The skill required here is that of being able to view the work of the group and individual members with detachment, so that the process of evaluation can itself be a useful learning experience.

The Role of the Teacher

If these skills in group work are regarded as important educational objectives, it is essential that appropriate learning experiences be planned to achieve them. As in the case of other objectives, one does not expect appreciable gains in group skills merely by chance. It is at this point that the teacher's role becomes increasingly important.

In the first place, the teacher must make some assessment of the kind and amount of emphasis given to group work in earlier grades. One of the most common difficulties that teachers encounter arises because they have not taken into account previous experience of the pupils with group work, or the lack of such experience. If the teacher has some knowledge of the kinds of problems upon which the pupils have worked in groups he will be in a better position to guide their further development.

Secondly, the teacher must ascertain what possibilities for group work are presented within the school program. As has been pointed out above, the opportunities in the social studies are frequent. This is true not only because of the great abundance of knowledge in history, geography, and the other subjects normally included under this heading, but also because there are so many opportunities within the normal life of the classroom to use group skills as a means of achieving important social learnings. A major task of the teacher, therefore, is to identify the points at which group work can be effectively used.

A third task for the teacher is to assist the pupils in identifying the skills needed for effective group work. This is most advantageously done immediately prior to an occasion when group work is to be used, with reminders on each subsequent occasion to the extent that they are needed. As the pupils develop their capacity to handle group assignments, such reminders should become much less necessary. However, it there is a considerable period of time intervening between the attempts to use group work the pupils are likely to forget.

A fourth responsibility of the teacher is to structure the assignment for the group in such a way that the task is quite clear. Once having done this the teacher in effect delegates to the group the responsibility for performing the task. It is precisely at this point that the teacher has an opportunity to express his confidence in the pupils and their capacity to do a satisfactory job. There is obviously the possibility that the group, lacking sufficient skills in group work, may not be wholly successful. And it is also possible that the teacher may anticipate this result as he watches the group at work. Should he intervene, and if so, to what extent? In general pupils should understand that the teacher represents one of the important resources available to them in their efforts to do their work. But the teacher must also recognize that he is not always doing the group a service if he permits them to depend on him for help in situations which he believes they are quite capable of handling. If this is to be a genuine learning experience, the pupils must, as far as possible, depend upon their own resources. The question of whether the teacher should intervene or not, then, is a matter in which he must use his best judgment. His knowledge of the particular pupils, of the nature of the task set for them, and of the difficulties they may expect to encounter, will enter into his decision. If the teacher has taken these matters into account in the first instance when the group task was set, he would probably do well to intervene as little as possible.

A fifth responsibility of the teacher is to make certain that the management of the group enterprises proceeds as smoothly as possible, so that a minimum of time is lost in assigning pupils to groups, in the selecting of chairmen, and in similar activities. It is possible for the pupils to become so preoccupied with these matters that they have little time or energy to devote to the task the group is expected to accomplish. Thus some teachers feel it is best to relieve the pupils of such tasks as naming chairmen, or perhaps even to point out that a very small group could proceed effectively without a designated chairman. Others feel that the process of getting a group organized for work is in itself a desirable learning experience and that the pupils will therefore profit from it. Again the teacher's judgment will have to guide him. It is well to remember, however, that a good bit of the success a group experiences comes from learning how to handle intragroup problems of management as well as how to perform the work for which it was formed.

A sixth kind of responsibility facing the teacher is related to the planning of group work in such a way as to facilitate the maximum development of group skills in the course of the year's work. This calls for beginning the work with tasks that are well within the competence of the pupils at the beginning of the year, and gradually increasing the difficulty and complexity of the assignments as the year progresses. Just where it is appropriate to begin with any given class will depend, as has been noted above, on the pupils' previous experience with group work. Such experience will undoubtedly vary considerably from class to class, and in any class one will find variation in the extent to which the individual pupils have learned the necessary skills. One of the first tasks of the teacher, then, is to obtain an estimate of the ability of the class to handle group work. This may be done by assigning a relatively simple set of problems where the tasks may be completed within a single period or two. Usually such a procedure is sufficient to indicate to the teacher who might have difficulty in similar group assignments in the future, as well as who may be expected to do unusually well. Subsequent assignments can then be planned so as to provide for needed developments. Although the results of group work depend heavily upon the motivation and application of the pupils, they depend no less upon the thought and care that the teacher gives to his planning in advance. The principles of teaching that demand a teacher to do careful advance planning apply here just as much as in other phases of his work. Indeed, because he must be continually alert to a variety of directions that the work of any group may take he probably needs to exercise unusual care in developing plans for group work.

Finally, as in the case with all instruction, the teacher must make some appraisal of the effectiveness of the activities designed to promote skill in group work. Some of the evidence he needs can come from the group's own evaluation of its work. But there are things which the teacher can note which might not normally come to light in the pupils' evaluation. Was the group task too difficult, or too simple? Were the materials needed available? Were the sub-groups too large or too small? Were the tasks formulated in such a way that each member of the group could make a contribution? As the pupils gain more experience do they tend to use up less time with activities that are not central to the task at hand? Do the pupils seem to be better able to exhibit respect for each other? Does group work, as carried on in this class, facilitate desired learnings at least as effectively as other means which might be used?

On this latter question there has been relatively little research, and what there is presents conflicting evidence. The term "group work" represents different things to different people. It is therefore difficult to draw general conclusions from investigations that deal with various kinds of group activities, in various settings, with children of various ages. We do know that it is possible to describe a classroom group in terms of the kind of "climate" that prevails. We know that one of the primary factors, if not the most important factor, in classroom climate is the teacher. We have reason to believe that the classroom climate has a significant effect upon learning. It becomes increasingly apparent that a teacher, sensitive to the forces at work in his class group and its many sub-groups, can encourage the use of group problem solving as a means of fostering group and individual inquiry. But this requires at least the meeting of some of the conditions outlined earlier in this section, and it falls largely to the teacher to see that such conditions are met.

Group work is, therefore, no panacea for the ills that beset education in general, or elementary social studies in particular. It has a great deal to offer, and undoubtedly will become even more productive as our knowledge of group phenomena broadens and deepens. As has always been true with various methods of instruction, results depend more upon the discriminating and wise use of the method than upon the method itself.

Section Four: Map Reading Skills

Lillian G. Witucki

Map reading skills have importance and practical value in day-today activities as do the other skills developed with children in the elementary school. Skill in the accurate interpretation of maps is neces-

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This section was reviewed by Stanley Dimond, University of Michigan, Richard Kirk, Detroit Public Schools, and Gertrude Whipple, Detroit Public Schools.

sary for today's citizens. Instruction in the use and understanding of maps is recognized as one of the important jobs of the elementary social studies teacher today.

In the United States the development of map reading skills has been delegated almost exclusively to the elementary school. This is unfortunate, for map reading skills, like the other skills taught in school, require review and re-teaching in secondary schools and colleges. In most schools map skills are taught in all elementary grades, kindergarten through eighth. There is increasing awareness of the necessity for continuing the teaching of map reading in secondary schools and colleges, but the fundamental skills of map reading are still started in the elementary school.

As with the other skills taught in the elementary school, map reading skills should follow a program in which there is a systematic development of both skill and knowledge which leads to a better understanding of the world in which we live. The work in the kindergarten is properly a readiness program rather than the teaching of specific skills themselves. However, the development of the readiness of children for map interpretation requires a planned program if it is to be effective. The readiness program begun in the kindergarten should lead to simple skills in the primary grades. Building on these, teachers should develop more difficult skills in the middle and upper grades.

A map skill program cannot and should not be separated from the rest of the social studies curriculum, nor indeed from the elementary school curriculum itself. Map skills must be taught as and when they are needed by the children. As stated by Kohn,

> Instruction in the use of maps and globes, as in the development of any skill, should be given at the time when children are called upon to consult a map for some specific purpose. In other words, map reading skills cannot be taught successfully apart from the on-going activities of the classroom. Students must see a purpose in what they are learning. Thus, a particular map reading skill might be developed best in a history class, a science class, or even an arithmetic class.[35]

Through the proper teaching of map reading skills, maps should become as familiar to the child as books and other reading materials. Maps of various kinds should be readily available in classrooms for immediate reference. All of the skills involved in reading maps must be taught as are other skills. Maps should not be used merely as instruments on which the location of places is pointed out. Each map skill to be learned must be introduced with proper motivation, and the appropriate re-teaching and drill must be provided.

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[35] Kohn, Clyde F. "Interpreting Maps and Globes." *Skills in Social Studies.* (Edited by Helen McCracken Carpenter.) Twenty-Fourth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, a department of the National Education Association, 1953. p. 146.

Suggestions follow of the equipment which should be available at the different elementary school levels, and of a program of map reading skills for each level.

KINDERGARTEN—MAP READINESS

The kindergarten room need not be supplied with maps and globes although it is desirable to have a globe whenever possible. It would be used only incidentally to point out a place the group may be mentioning, to indicate approximately where the school community is located, or to give the notion of the roundness of the earth.

Kindergarten children are developing a readiness for maps when they have a play period in which the imaginative placing of objects takes place. This is sometimes done in the playhouse with furniture, or in the play area with large blocks or other types of play equipment. Also, during drawing periods, the beginning ability to place objects drawn in some kind of perspective is important to later map understanding. If the kindergarten has a sand table, it can play a part in helping to develop an ability to place objects in relation to one another, as well as to make imaginary picture maps of known areas.

More specifically, the kindergarten teacher should begin to orient the children to the names of the cardinal directions—north, south, east, and west. This may be done while out for a walk, noting where the sun is in the sky. The names of the cardinal directions are also used in story or talking periods, and are often a part of songs and finger type games that are used. While there is no effort made at this time to be sure the children have learned where the four cardinal directions are, either in the school room or out of doors, there should be a familiarity with the sound of the four names. Certain space concepts should be introduced in the kindergarten by the use of such terms as near, far, next to, small and large.

PRIMARY GRADES—BEGINNING MAP SKILLS

In the primary grades, a simple beginners' globe—one with only continents and oceans indicated and preferably a globe which can be written or marked on—is desirable. In the second and third grades, maps of the home and school community, pictorial and semi-symbolic, may be introduced as specific topics are introduced. Maps of the community made by children should be displayed as they are constructed.

If other types of maps of the community are available, they should be displayed, discussed, and compared with the children's maps.

It is important in the first grade that the children be given opportunities to learn the four cardinal directions, and it is advantageous for the classroom to have signs or letters indicating where north, south, east, and west are in relation to the classroom.

A good class project which furthers the map readiness program in the primary grades is one in which the children draw their own seating chart or floor plan of the school room. Children are interested in knowing and writing the names of the other children in the proper place. This experience is a good beginning for learning about placing objects in their correct relative position as well as an introduction to the use of symbols to stand for certain objects—doors, tables, seats, desks, windows, the wastebasket, and bulletin boards or blackboards.

The next plan to be made, as a natural outgrowth of the schoolroom plan, is a floor plan of a room at home The discussion concerning drawing plans of rooms at home—the child's bedroom, the living room, or the kitchen—can be related to the learning about the cardinal directions. By now the child will have become familiar with these directions both inside and outside the classroom. While going for a walk, the cardinal directions might be reviewed by asking the direction in which the children are facing while walking. Use the sun and its location when necessary to determine each of the four cardinal directions. The next step can be to use houses near the school as examples of buildings that face east, or south, or north, or west. This can be followed by a discussion of the location of rooms within the houses and the location of the four cardinal directions in relation to the rooms. This can be carried back to the classroom to determine in which direction the classroom faces, and other classrooms in the school.

After having had experiences with room maps, children should be introduced to simple maps of the immediate school community. This may be done as a class or group project, making one large map on the floor, or individually by children at their desks or tables. The first such maps constructed should not try to show too large an area. The streets and buildings in the immediate area of the school are all that can and should be pictured on the first such map. Also, the first such map should be largely pictorial.

Later, other maps of the community should be made, showing a larger area than the first maps. These may include main streets that are near-by, shopping centers with which the children are familiar, the library, fire station, or the post office. Later maps should be less pictorial, making use of more symbols. Symbols can be used for houses and other structures. They can also be used for parks, stores, fields, and different kinds of roads. These community maps should be made with north at the top, south at the bottom, east to the right, and west to the left, as they will be found most often on maps that will be used later.

The primary grades are not too early to begin to develop an understanding of the map key or legend. It is while making the transition from the pictorial map to the symbolic one that a map key should be constructed and used with each map as it is made. Even the child in the primary grades can understand that an accurate map key unlocks the true meaning of the map for the map reader.

During the primary grades, whenever there is discussion of the cardinal directions, they can and should be pointed out on the room globe as well as in the school room or out of doors or on community maps that are being constructed. This is the time that children should begin to realize that the globe is the true shape of the world and is the most accurate map of the world. Therefore, it is most necessary that they also learn at this time that the four cardinal directions can be shown on the globe. Ample opportunity should be given for children to look at the globe and learn the location on it of north, south, east, and west.

This can best be done by a lesson in understanding concepts of the shape of the earth as shown on the globe. Using a simplified globe held where all may see, point out the North Pole. The explanation should be made that this is the farthest point north. Show that it would be possible to travel north to the North Pole from any other point on he globe. Have children trace imaginary trips from different points on the globe to the North Pole. Each time emphasize that the direction travelled was north.

If children in the primary grades are given the time and opportunity to become familiar with the cardinal directions, both as they are in the school and community and as they are used on maps and globes, and have had experiences in map construction that progressed from the picture-type to the semi-symbolic to the symbolic, they will be ready to build on this knowledge as they study maps in the middle grades.

In summary, in the primary grades, the following map reading skills and activities are emphasized:

1. Learning names of the cardinal directions
2. Becoming familiar with simple map symbols

3. Understanding a simple map key
4. Learning to make a plan of a room
5. Constructing a map of the neighborhood
6. Beginning ability to get information from maps.

MIDDLE GRADES—READING AND USING MAPS AND GLOBES

In fourth, fifth, and sixth grade classrooms there should be an abundance of different kinds of maps and globes. There should be wall maps of the United States, North America, South America, Eurasia, Africa, the Western Hemisphere and the Eastern Hemisphere as well as of the state in which the school is located. Maps should be used often as parts of or as the center of bulletin board displays in connection with different units of work being studied. There should be available outline maps which may be used by small groups as they gather specific information, and which also may be used by the class as a whole when the teacher finds there is a need for teaching a particular map skill or emphasizing a new concept that is peculiarly a map type of knowledge.

In the middle grades, children should have ready access to a more difficult type of globe than the beginners globe of the primary grades. These will be the grades in which the children will be learning how maps and globes use color and dots and lines for different purposes and about parallels and meridians. New learnings should be taught first on a globe and then on wall maps.

In the middle grades the teacher should be aware of the map skills taught in the primary grades and should review these skills frequently. Every opportunity should be taken to review the cardinal directions—their true location as well as their location on maps. The use of symbols on maps, map keys, the way in which a map helps us to picture the way a particular area of the surface of the earth looks, should be retaught whenever possible.

In the middle grades, children first begin to encounter in their work large wall maps that use standard colors for elevation. It is extremely important that the teacher take time to show maps which use color for different purposes. When the first map is being studied that uses color to show the elevation of land in the United States, for example, other maps which use color to show political areas or color to show the distribution of varying amounts of rainfall or population or natural resources also should be exhibited. We want to be sure that the use of color in certain ways is not taught so exclusively that children will later have difficulty with other types of maps.

The correct teaching of color symbols provides an opportunity to review the use of the map key. Children should be given as many opportunities as possible to see how maps, through proper interpretation of the map key, unlock new knowledge. A middle grades teacher will need many such maps to help children in their search for information.

In the middle grades maps are used to initiate an understanding of the word climate and its importance. While it is known that much of earlier teaching concerning climatic zones on maps and globes was inaccurate, maps and globes still need to be used to develop and strengthen knowledge of the major types of climate in the world and their distribution. Maps help children understand the factors that influence the distribution of and changes in such climates.

During the middle grades, usually, children are first introduced to an understanding of parallels on maps and globes. This knowledge is best taught by first using the globe with its complete set of parallels and meridians. Through discussion and review children can quickly see the importance of such a system for purposes of navigation and location. The transfer, then, from the lines on the globe to the parallels found on many of the wall maps, book maps, and desk maps the children are using can easily be made. The relationship between climate and elevation and climate and location with reference to the equator can be developed with the use of maps at this time.

Occasionally, maps with a simple type of scale are used in the primary grades. More often, however, the concept of the scale of miles of a map, or the drawing of maps to scale is developed in the middle grades. As different maps are used, the teacher should be sure to call to the attention of the children the differences in scale and how this influences the facts of the map. Children should be encouraged to use the scale on maps to measure distances wherever possible, and to discuss how such means of measurement might vary. Children should be shown maps of the same area which are drawn to different scales. These may be used in developing the understanding that the larger the scale used the larger any specific feature will appear on the map.

In the middle grades, also, ample opportunity should be given to use different kinds of symbols in map making and map reading. In these grades the teaching of common symbols that are used for such things as capital cities, railroads, mountains, deserts, and boundaries should be emphasized. During these years children will be using many different kinds of maps which employ these common symbols. Wherever possible they should be encouraged to visualize each symbol in order to add to their knowledge about a region.

In summary, in the middle grades, the following map reading skills are introduced or reviewed:

1. The use of symbols
2. The use of the map key
3. The use of maps to understand climate
4. The meaning of parallels and their use
5. Understanding of simple scale
6. Ability to learn from maps about the location and distribution of natural and man-made things.

UPPER GRADES—CONTINUING DEVELOPMENT OF MAP READING SKILLS

Teachers of the seventh and eight grades will find many occasions arising in the classroom when review of the map reading skills developed in the middle and primary grades may be conducted. Many maps of different kinds will be found in textbooks as well as in other books being used for reference purposes. Understanding of directions on a map, the proper interpretation of map symbols, and the use of the map key can well be discussed with individual children, groups of children, and the class as a whole as the need arises.

The upper grade rooms need all of the wall maps listed as necessary equipment for the middle grades. In addition, world maps of different projection should be available as well as weather maps and maps with different scales of measurement. Air-age maps using polar projection and maps showing the great circle routes now used in air flights should be displayed whenever possible.

In the upper grades, map reading skills should be expanded to cover several more difficult understandings than those taught in the middle grades. Specific planning for the teaching of the importance and use of meridians is often done at this level. Although meridians may have been discussed earlier in connection with parallels, it should be more intensively taught at this time. It should be shown that all meridians pass through both poles and are as important as parallels for use in the location of a particular place on the earth. There should be discussion of how the Greenwich meridian came to be used as the prime meridian. An understanding of the time zones of the world can be developed at this time, correlated with the study of current news events or social studies units being studied. The globe should be used as extensively as wall maps so that the student may become aware of the fact that maps are usually distorted either in the size or in the shape of the earth's features. By comparing maps with the globe the student can readily see that scale, projection, and true relationship are best shown on a globe and that only by using a globe can erroneous ideas gained from flat maps be corrected.

In the upper grades units of work should be surveyed carefully to find places where more intensive map study may be conducted. As students study particular countries or continents, maps showing such things as climate, density of population, crops, and minerals should be used and compared. The ability to read and interpret such maps can lead to a better understanding of the world and its people by seventh and eighth grade students. Similar map study of the students' home community, state, and nation can result in better preparation for intelligent, informed citizenship.

In the seventh and eighth grades students should be encouraged to become familiar with weather maps. Today, weather maps are printed in most daily papers and are also used in many television news programs so that they are readily available for use and are a part of our everyday life. Although the reading of such maps is often taught in connection with science units, the application of the knowledge gained from the weather reporting about a region over a year's period of time can aid in developing an understanding of how climate plays an important part in determining the activities of men in all parts of the world.

One major map reading skill which should be developed in the upper grades is the ability to compare data on one map with information on another and to note correspondence in their distribution. This skill may be introduced in the middle grades with some groups of children, but it should be further developed in the upper grades. Children will at this time be using different maps of the same area and different kinds of world maps which can be compared. The accurate interpretation of conclusions which may be drawn by comparing two maps of the same area, each presenting a different kind of information, is an important skill which should not be neglected.

In summary, in the upper grades, the following skills and activities are emphasized:

1. Understanding of polar projection
2. Understanding of parallels and meridians
3. Study of different types of maps
4. Ability to compare one distribution with another in order to make spatial generalizations
5. Understanding of weather maps.

The map reading skills listed and discussed in this section are an important part of the total social studies program of any school or school system. As stated in the opening paragraphs, they should be taught when they are needed as a part of the on-going activities of the class. It is only in this way that they will have meaning and become a part of the learner's own widening horizon of knowledge and understanding.

Section Five: Dramatic Play: A Tool of Learning in Social Studies

Helen L. Sagl

The teaching of social studies in the elementary school is always put to the test by the degree of insight into the problems and goodnesses of human relationships it develops in the child. While thoughful teachers are dedicated to the achievement of this goal, they nevertheless recognize it as one that is easy to state but difficult, often elusive, to achieve. And sooner or later in the halcyon lull that comes at the close of a school day, there is a moment of realism when a teacher begins to wonder to what degree if any, he can develop children's insights into the relationships needed in living and sharing in the lives of others.

Nor is this concern without cause, for children so often are too alone in their concepts of themselves to care about other human beings and their hopes. Or they are too inexperienced to understand the subtle complexities of human living and communication. Or their sources of knowledge about unknown peoples are much too barren to elicit more than a token of empathy for them.

Yet this preoccupation with the self, this inexperience with life, is in itself germinal. With reason: it is in the search for self understanding that the child begins to understand others. Precisely because this is true there is no more fruitful approach to the task of teaching human relationships than to observe the way a child orients himself to his environment as he searches for self understanding.

Seeking to understand who he is and what his relationships to people, situations, and things are, the child play-acts life as he sees it. Using his imagination, he creates make-believe worlds that, like a prism, illuminate and clarify in miniature and symbolically the meanings and values of human living. Play-acting, he pushes himself out into the world of others and in so doing takes stock of his beliefs and his ideas. Indeed it may be said that play-acting is the child's way of stretching the boundaries of his life space. In a word, in play-acting a child is trying on life.

This section was reviewed by Ruth Strickland, Maxine Dunfee, and Kathleen Dugdale of the School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington.

If this indeed is true, then making social studies come alive for children, making the subject have meaning for them, is a process not unlike the play-acting that children engage in as they explore, experiment, rehearse, and practice the ideas and experiences that are occurring in their everyday lives. Deepened insights will develop when children have opportunities to express in imaginative make-believe play-acting their ideas, their concepts, their feelings about human living. A child cannot put himself in the shoes of another person, even a person remote and unknown, without gaining at least a glimmer of insight into his life. To illustrate:

A child in China stands huddled in the bitter cold, pleading for a morsel of food. A family of children in Indiana stays home from school because their father cannot afford to buy them the books they need. In Morocco, a city topples in a horror of moving earth as a voracious earthquake leaves thousands of people frightened and homeless. Transported by the evocative magic of play-acting, a child, in a classroom, puts himself in the place of these people. The cold of China chills his body. He cries as a little boy cries who cannot go to school. And in doing so he begins to learn how it feels to be someone else. In short, play-acting, used as a tool of learning in the social studies, opens a child's eyes to see and his heart to listen and understand.

This is the premise of these pages: let children be actors and in acting they will learn. Let them engage in creative make-believe acting and they will learn what no teacher can teach them. Let them play-act the understandings to be assimilated in the social studies and that which is unclear is understood and the remote becomes near and alive.

It is a simple idea—this use of make-believe play-acting as a tool of learning in the social studies—a deceptively simple one, however; for, like any other effective educational technique, there are clearly defined procedures for implementing it. To begin with, the term "dramatic play" is used to refer to play-acting in the classroom. By definition, dramatic play is a dramatic activity in which children explore, in their own way, the activities and relationships of human living for the purpose of acquiring needed information and skills. Unlike children's free play, which is unsupervised, dramatic play evolves under a teacher's guidance. And, unlike the more formally structured dramatization in which the lines of a script are read or memorized, dramatic play unfolds spontaneously without plot. It utilizes the dramatic elements of characterization and dialogue. Empathy is strong in a dramatic play enactment with the actor taking on the character of the person he is fashioning. Emphasis is on the evolving action; hence the audience is incidental.

Commonly, dramatic play enactments grow out of life situations, problems, episodes, incidents that have implications for learning in the social studies area. Sometimes the situation itself is the point of departure; sometimes it is an arranged environment. Still another approach is the unfinished story which has a problem or situation to be resolved and in which there is action and rich opportunity for characterization.

But whether the point of departure is a real life experience or a substitute for it, the process through which it evolves is the same. Here, in general, is the pattern of a dramatic play enactment.

First, there is the introduction to focus children's attention on the problem or situation to be dramatized. If a story is used, the teacher previews it and explains his purpose in reading it. If an emergent problem is the catalyst for the enactment, the teacher and children discuss its nature, analyze it, and identify critical points of concern. The preliminaries completed (the story read, the problem, situation, or incident discussed), the teacher and children, planning together, set the stage for the enactment, determine the locale, the characters, the props needed and in some instances, the sequence of the dramatization. When the stage is set, the characters selected, and the non-participating children prepared for their roles as critical observers, the enactment begins. As it evolves, the teacher directs his attention to the children's interpretations of concepts, the feelings they reveal as they fashion their characterizations, the generalizatons they use in interpreting cause and effect relationships. Particularly, he is alert to the misunderstandings, the misconceptions that emerge during the enactment, for they chart the direction of the learning experiences that follow it.

At the close of the enactment the teacher and children analyze the interpretations, the characterizations, and the actions of their performers. The discussion terminates either in generalizations based on deepened insights that were developed through the dramatic play enactment or in the identification of new problems to be solved. Thus, a dramatic play enactment utilizes teacher-pupil planning, dramatization, problem solving, and generalization.

Always, of course, the use of dramatic play as a tool of learning is determined by the outcomes to be desired. In other words what, specifically, does a teacher expect to accomplish by using it. Categorized, according to purpose, the more common uses of dramatic play in social studies are to initiate areas of experience, to develop specific learnings such as social skills and social consciousness, and to evaluate the effectiveness of social studies instruction.

As almost any teacher knows, capturing and anchoring children's interest in an area of content is central to the task of launching it as an area of study. Equally important is the early discovery of children's virgin concepts and understandings about the content, for, as noted above, they are the key to the nature and direction of the experiences to be developed. Here, to the writer's mind, is one of the true services that a dramatic play enactment can perform in initiating an area of experience. Consider, for example, how the dramatic play enactment described below served to accomplish both of these purposes.

A sixth grade teacher, after considering the merits of several ways to initiate areas of experience, decided to use dramatic play to introduce Russia as an area of study.

"Certainly," he reasoned, "most sixth grade children today have many ideas and feelings about the peoples of Russia, their government, their way of life. They have seen pictures of life in Russia; they hear about it continually; they have formed their own generalizations about it."

To introduce the area of study, the teacher created a simple story. (He might also have used a published story, an environment of displays and realia of Russia, or an incident currently in the news.) The story that he created was a narrative of an American family's travels through Russia, a travelogue rather than an adventure story, factual in content without interpretations or elaborations.

During the time set aside for initiating the area of experience he read the story. After he read it, he asked, "As I read this story were you imagining what the family did as they went from place to place in Russia? Perhaps you even imagined yourself traveling with them. What did you see? Whom did you talk to? How did you travel? Could you act out the actions and conversations that took place during the family's travels?" With this introduction as background, the teacher and children set the stage for the enactment and carried it out. The following excerpts from some of the episodes in the enactment are truly revealing of the children's understandings and misunderstandings about Russia.

Episode One

> While wandering through the streets of Moscow the family stops to listen to a man standing on a box in a park. He is waving his arms wildly and he is shouting, "You wanta support the Russian government. Buy bonds. Bonds give us the money we need to keep ahead of the Americans who threaten us with war. Be patriotic. Buy bonds."

Episode Two

> It is nearing supper time and the children are hungry. The father suggests that they stop at a market where they can buy some fruit. The mother asks, "Do you think we can find one of the fruit markets where the rich people buy their fruit? Only the best fruit is sold there. The

> poor people of Russia have to eat spoiled fruit that's sold at markets just for them."
>
> Episode Three
>
> One of the boys in the family becomes separated from the others and is picked up by the police because he is caught taking pictures. The father goes to the police station in search of his son and discovers that he has been arrested. Angrily, he shouts, "Release my son at once! What do you think you are doing arresting an American citizen? I'll get a lawyer. I'll bail my son out. Here's my money. How much?"

Following the enactment, using these clues to the children's knowledge about Russia and many others like them as guides, the teacher discussed the enactment with the children. He challenged their portrayals with such critical questions as:

"Does Russia raise money for its government by selling bonds as we do in America?"

"How does an American citizen who is traveling in another country get help when he is in trouble?"

"Are there rich people with special privileges in Russia?"

"Why do the Russian police object to visitors taking pictures of scenes in their country?"

The questions were not answered during the initiation. Rather they were designed to stimulate the children's thinking about the normative judgments they revealed in their portrayals. They served to point out to the children their need for further study on the subject and to guide them in identifying questions and problems for further study.

The initiation terminated when all of the questions were recorded and the teacher and children were ready to begin cooperative planning of ways to solve them.

Clearly, the fruits of the dramatic play initiation are those which teachers envision when they plan introductions to areas of study but which they seldom harvest in such abundance. In fact the vistas of possible learning experiences that dramatic play initiations create are often so panoramic as to seem almost without limits.

Necessarily, of course, there are several basic points to remember in using the dramatic play enactment to initiate areas of study. Once started, it proceeds continuously, without interruptions, until it is finished. It terminates when a problem or problems to be solved are recorded. Although children may wish to re-enact their first portrayals, their enactments are rarely, if ever, repeated during the initiation. The reason is obvious. Focus is not on the quality of the portrayals per se, but on the virgin understandings they yield.

In addition to its usefulness as a mirror of children's virgin understandings, dramatic play is an effective tool for evaluating the results of instruction in the social studies. Subsequent to the initiation, children engage in many and varied learning activities, some of which are planned by the teacher and some are planned cooperatively. They carry out research, read books, use audio-visual aids, take excursions into the community, organize their information and integrate it with other areas of the curriculum. Used as a tool of evaluation, dramatic play makes a galaxy of learnings observable, and thus reveals the degree to which children are internalizing the knowledge they are acquiring. It also opens up channels for new experiences to be planned and executed and, equally important, it sharpens children's ability to evaluate their learnings. Note, for example, the critical evaluation a child made of another's interpretations in a dramatic play enactment:

"When Mary was getting supper for the Eskimo family, she talked about making coffee and frying seal meat. Didn't she make a mistake? Anyway, if what I read is right, Eskimos drink tea, not coffee. And they don't usually fry seal meat when they are traveling. They eat it raw. I guess they just learned to eat it that way because it's easier."

There is a kind of rhythm in the degree to which dramatic play enactments evaluate learnings in particular areas of study. At first, when learnings are few in number, enactments are simple. As learnings about a subject accumulate, enactments become more complex, ascending in a spiral of more accurate activities, more interrelationships, more interpretations. In some instances this spiral culminates in a structured dramatization that summarizes the significant learnings to be derived from it. In this case, of course, the activity is no longer dramatic play but formal dramatization with a plot, planned scenes, and recorded script.

How the needs for learning new content and new skills will be met is incidental to the specific functions of the two types of dramatic play enactments described above. But any dramatic play enactment, whether specifically planned for that purpose or not, creates a climate that nurtures children's social needs. It is axiomatic that children learn by doing. Is there, then, a more productive way to learn the skills of cooperative planning than in the cooperative planning situations that are an integral part of dramatic play enactments? When children plan together for these enactments, they learn to recognize the need for planning, to consider the merits of suggestions, to respect minority points of view, to accept group decisions, and to organize their ideas into workable plans of action. What is more, while learning and practicing these skills they are also forming generalizations about the values of cooperative planning and its importance in democratic living.

And what of the skills of human relationships? Is there a better opportunity to learn these skills and to practice them than in dramatic play enactments used as tools of learning? The good manners to be used in presenting ideas for consideration, the tactfulness needed in criticizing others' interpretations, the words of praise to be expressed for sensitive portrayals, the gracious acceptance of assignments of lesser importance, the empathy for others in their disappointments—these are the essence of good human relationships. Learned in the classroom, they grow with the child, gathering force and opening up lines of communication between him and peoples everywhere.

Certainly dramatic play enactments foster the development of problem solving skills. One of the basic ideas underlying the use of dramatic play as a tool of learning is that it facilitates recognition and clarification of problems. Dramatic play enactments often begin with a problem or problems to be solved. They encourage children to marshall and weigh facts before they make generalizations.They act as sounding boards for testing the validity of their generalizations. All of which are essential elements of the problem solving process.

Also, dramatic play enactments give children insights into the meaning of social consciousness. They are a way of illuminating the responsibilities of democratic citizenship. By enacting problems and aspects of community living, children try on the role of a civic-minded member of society. Take a simple example—a community meeting convened to discuss an alarming increase in pedestrian accidents. Representatives from civic organizations, private citizens, school officals, school safety patrol leaders, the mayor, traffic officials, all voice their ideas for protecting the safety of pedestrians in the community.

There are disagreements, and some arguments, but out of the meeting comes a tentative plan of action.

Fashioning their characterizations of these people, children begin to see what happens when a community faces a crisis. They learn what it is like to take an unpopular, though righteous point of view. Thus, through such enactments, children not only develop an understanding of the problems of community living, but a realization of the importance of participating in community activities.

Are there pitfalls in using dramatic play as a tool of learning? Perhaps, but some of the mistakes that teachers make in using it are probably those they would make with any other tool. A common one is to over-use it. Even fun is boring to a child if he has too much of it.

Another is to limit participation to the few children who are especially gifted in this type of activity. Still another is to use it as a display piece for audiences other than the children themselves. Often, too, teachers over-plan an enactment and thus dull the edges of children's spontaneous expression.

Yet these pitfalls in using dramatic play as a tool of learning in social studies do not change the fact that its use is wholly compatible with the way children learn; namely, by engaging in creative make-believe play-acting. Possibly the talent for teaching engendered in creative make-believe is bred in the bone, possibly it is acquired. But whatever it is, teachers who use it as a master key open doors of learning through which children can enter into the lives of others. In short, they gain insights into the human relationships so necessary to their survival.

Section Six: Industrial Arts in the Social Studies Program

Fannie R. Shaftel

One of the most controversial areas in the social studies program is centered in the role of industrial arts and construction activities. In part, the criticism of these activities stems from a misunderstanding of the social studies functions of industrial arts experiences as well as from a lack of real knowledge of the key processes and the techniques for sharing these with children.

But another very solid body of criticism comes from such thoughtful curriculum experts as Caswell and Foshay who comment that:

> ". . . Doing of an overt form has been so emphasized that the activities of studying about and reflecting on matters are frequently discounted. . . . This tendency is reflected in the occasional extreme emphasis on firsthand experience and disregard of vicarious experience as a basis for learning in the elementary school. . . ."[36]

Such observations reflect a concern over how much direct, firsthand experience is actually needed to understand the concepts and generalizations that are derived from a study of man's industrial activities. This position is at present given a certain impetus by those who are attempting to "intellectualize" the curriculum, to build in more substantive content and who argue that we cannot waste time on activities; there is too much to learn. Ironically, at the same time, researchers in the processes of thinking and in creativity are concerned to set up situations that allow children to *discover* relationships for themselves, using many sensory as well as symbolic forms to enable numerous approaches to inductive thinking, problem solving and creativity. In their experiments, the "doing" side of thinking is taking on a new respectability. Some studies indicate that, where students are encouraged to explore, analyze, and experiment with ideas *in their own fashion,* they tend to put ideas together most meaningfully for themselves and do divergent as well as convergent thinking.

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[36] Caswell, Hollis L., and A. Wellesley Foshay, *Education in the Elementary School.* Second edition. New York: American Book Co., 1950. p. 6.

Perhaps these controversies can best be resolved by considering carefully some of the valid functions of industrial arts experiences in the social studies program.

WHAT ARE THE INDUSTRIAL ARTS?

The industrial arts are those activities that involve the actual (authentic) processes by which man, in the historic past and in the present, changes (improves upon) raw materials in order to meet his needs for food, clothing, shelter, utensils, weapons, tools, and other material products necessary for survival. They involve the occupations by which changes are made in the forms of materials to increase their values for human usage.

When the cave man first learned to drop raw meat into boiling water, he entered into an industrial art. When man learned to spin thread and weave cloth, he extended and improved upon the types of clothing protection available to him. Today, in our chemical laboratories, we carry that industrialization process out far beyond our pioneer ancestors, when, with the aid of science and an advanced technology, we produce such wonder cloths as nylon and orlon. Man's ability to rationalize work procedures, to invent processes, and to utilize a wide range of materials to meet his needs is truly wonderful.

In this category of authentic processes fall such activities as building log cabins (miniature or actual), adobe houses, making butter, cheese and bread, reproducing the wool or silk cycle, making pewter bowls, wooden trenchers or ceramic dishes and many other activities which are a product of the way a given group of people have actually taken raw materials and invented procedures for improving these materials for use.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE WORLD INDUSTRIAL EXPLOSION

It is difficult for Americans, living in an "affluent society"[37] to face the fact that a majority of the peoples of the earth are still living at a "survival" level. Their main concern is to provide the food, clothing, and shelter that will keep them alive. They produce what they need to survive, while most Americans live in a society that produces and then tries to persuade people that they *need* these new products!

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[37] Galbraith, J. K. *The Affluent Society*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1958. 356 p.

In a world torn by warring ideologies and the immature struggles of emergent nations, our ability to understand the survival orientation and needs of under-developed nations may be crucial. Can you tell most American children, verbally, what it is like to work all day getting food, clothing, and shelter in order to survive? Or is another dimension to learning needed—a sensing, feeling, "affective" learning such as is experienced when you struggle to grind corn by hand on a Mexican metate with a mano and learn by your own sweat what a hard, time-consuming, manual task it is. Perhaps, after such firsthand experience, reading a sentence which states that people who live in a pre-industrial culture have to work very hard simply to provide food each day, will have more meaning.

From primitive times on, man has worked ingenuously to rationalize the methods by which he has obtained and improved upon raw materials in order to meet his basic needs. When children are led through such experiences as using clay to make dishes, first experimenting with a ball of clay with thumb and finger pressure to make a crude bowl, later learning the coil method of Hopi culture, and then the use of a potter's wheel of the cultures of the East and, finally the plaster-of-paris mold method (first developed in China) which is the basis for man's production of dishes today, they are re-living a part of the story of civilization. Each phase tells something of man's creativeness and his skill, and reveals the efficiency and artistry of his inventions. When children *do* these processes, as a part of culture studies, in which concepts of man's relation to his environment his level of technology, and the roles and values that accompany each task are carefully developed, they learn with all their senses to *understand* a way of life in a given time and place, at a given level of civilization. As a result they are better able to build the significant generalizations that give them increasing intellectual control of their world.

Today more than ever before, American children, living in growing numbers in urban areas, in a world of end-products, need to be helped to understand the relationship between natural resources, (raw materials) industrial processes, workers, and the products they consume.

And now, more than ever before, in a world experiencing an industrial explosion, they need to understand the ways of life of neolithic men, medieval men, and those in the early stages of industrialization—in Africa, the Middle East, Latin America and Asia—who are on the move, determined to achieve the technology of Western societies.

ANTHROPOLOGICAL INFLUENCES

The industrial arts, when taught as basic activities in an anthropological approach to the study of man, form a core of vivid experiences through which children can be helped to reconstruct man's adaptation to his physical environment, his work roles, the beliefs and values built around these roles and the limitations and opportunities that are inherent in the various cultural frameworks within which man has lived in the past and the many levels on which he lives in the present societies of the world. Such industrial arts activities contribute, when selected properly, to giving real depth to the content of culture studies. As children attempt to carry out the life-processes of various cultures, they can be helped to achieve a deep respect for the skill and artistry with which various people have coped with their environment.

However, such industrial arts experiences to be truly significant must be part of a careful anthropologically-oriented culture study. As one social scientist observes,

> . . . Just as we can explain much, but not all, about a culture by looking at its environment, we can explain much, but not all, of a culture by an examination of its materials and its technology. . . . we (must) . . . remember that a culture is an integrated set of behaviors, beliefs and artifacts—a total way of life—and when seen as a part of an integrated *whole*. . . . Most culture studies have a tendency to focus on one or more aspects of material culture at the expense of others. . . . It *should be remembered, however, that different aspects of material culture have different weights in different cultures.*[38]

Theodore Parsons suggests that appropriate study of man's technology involves the answering of such questions as How and for what purposes are the various material objects used? How adequately are the many aspects of the material culture and technology represented? Are those aspects emphasized which are of the greatest significance in the culture itself—those focused on the materials and techniques which the belief system and core values of the people endow with most meaning and significance?

When industrial arts processes are experienced by children as a part of such a culture study, the firsthand experiences are springboards to intellectual understandings.

As we draw upon the thinking of anthropologists and on those psychologists who are exploring children's thinking, a clear case can be made for re-incorporating into the social studies program industrial arts activities. If we wish to foster cross-cultural understanding based on an "empathic-identification-action" pattern[39] we shall have to help children reconstruct the way of life of selected cultures. Central in such reconstruction will be the life-processes by which people obtain food, shelter, clothing, and utensils *as they are imbedded in the system of beliefs and core values of the culture.*

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[38] Parsons, Theodore. *The Culture Unit: A Guide for Analysis and Selection of Content*. Unpublished manuscript. San Francisco: San Francisco State College, 1961.

When presented in this orientation, children will be helped to understand how the Hopi concept of the universe influences the way the Hopi plants his corn, orients his fields and harvests his crops. They will be helped to experience the various roles of the men and women and their orientation to time. The "doing" side of this experience will be tied into the symbolism by which man struggles to explain his existence and give his life significance. This is a qualitatively different approach from the somewhat superficial interpretation of "activities" that too many teachers have assigned to industrial arts.

The Impact of Science and Technology

Another dimension of the contribution is that of helping children to understand increasingly the impact of science and technology upon mankind. As children actively explore past cultures (including our own colonial and pioneer life) and presentday pre-industrial cultures, they can be taken through the experiences of washing, carding, and spinning raw wool, for example, and then making a loom and weaving homespun material by hand. *When this long, tedious process is compared with the machine products of the modern textile industry, they will be helped to comprehend what it means to industrialize a society.*

Such activities lend themselves well to an integration of science and social studies since children can actually experiment with scientific principles and procedures and see for themselves how science and technology changes man's control over his environment. Furthermore, if they are helped to see the displacement of workers and the loss of roles that accompany such change, students will become sensitive to the problems that are inherent in transition societies. A well thought out social studies program will take this experience even one step further with upper elementary grade children and explore the loss of traditional values and satisfications that often accompany industrialization as well as the potentialities of the new leisure for imaginative, creative activities when survival ceases to be the main goal of daily life.

Industrial arts activities, then, when selected for their key contribution to building concepts and generalizations about the nature of culture, levels of technology and the processes of industrialization, become vital channels through which children can learn through *experimentation* and *inductive thinking* to arrive at major understandings of the nature of their social world.

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[39] Cajoleas, L. P. "International Understanding: a Theoretical Analysis of a Goal in Education." *Teachers College Record,* January 1960. p. 188-94.

NEW INSIGHTS INTO THINKING PROCESSES

It is important to remember that children need to learn by analogy, demonstration and active exploration, *with all their senses,* if we are to help them become imaginative, sensitive and creative thinkers. There is danger that, in our haste to develop their intellectual capacities, we may narrow the channel of learning to symbolic forms only, and since they would then lack a solid, meaningful base in personal experience, such learning could become a mere manipulation of forms. The industrial arts processes, when done as experiences in unit-of-work studies where children are reconstructing a way of life for themselves, *so that they can visualize that way of life, at their own maturity level,* can become the bridge to real understanding.

Jerome Bruner[40] reminds us that "Research on the intellectual development of the child highlights the fact that at each stage of development the child has a characteristic way of viewing the world and explaining it to himself. . . ." Reviewing the work of Piaget, Bruner emphasizes the need for elementary school age children to go through the stage of (1) establishing relationships between experience and action, and (2) the stage of concrete operations. In this latter stage the child is getting data about the real world into the mind and then transforming them so that they can be organized and used selectively in the solution of problems. He is building an internalized structure with which to operate. Finally, some time between ten and fourteen years of age, the child passes into (3) the third stage, of formal operations, where he is able to operate on hypothetical propositions and is able to give formal or axiomatic expression to concrete ideas.

Too much of present-day elementary school social studies attempts to jump stages (1) and (2) and take children directly to the formal level. Industrial arts activities provide the concrete experiences that enable the child to view and explain the world to himself in his own way, when part of the unit-of-work approach to learning.

The construction products, in this rationale, then become props (small houses, streets, delivery trucks; or a setting for a peon's hut) to help the child get inside an area of human experience, in a childlike way, in order to explore relationships between institutions and people. *They become children's models for thinking!* For as children run trucks, they need streets; as they build streets, they discover the need for traffic rules. They many conclude, for example, that when there is traffic on streets, rules make it safer for people. In this process, *they take their own steps, do their own inductive thinking,* and under a purposeful teacher, build generalizations that make for "regenerative travel," to use Bruner's term.

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[40] Bruner, Jerome. *The Process of Education.* Cambridge: Harvard Press, 1960. p. 33-54.

The crucial elements that will give validity to industrial arts activities as a vital component in the social studies program are (a) that each process that is experienced shall be illustrative of operations that are central in the culture under study and taught as part of a larger exploration of core values, beliefs, and roles of that culture, that (b) they shall contribute to key understandings and generalizations about the nature of the human society, and (c) shall permit children to do their own thinking and gradually develop the capacity to operate on hypothetical propositions, think of variables and deduce potential relationships for later verifications.

In such an industrial arts program, the firsthand experiences are concerned with real processes that illumine the intellectual concepts of man's relationship to his environment, his institutions and processes and other men. Each activity is selected for its significant contribution to important ideas. Construction, in this framework, is subordinated and modified. It is done simply, on a child's level, to facilitate his thinking, to create an atmosphere in which to take on the roles of people. It contributes, as does a stage set, to identifying with a time, a place and a people, but does not dominate the program.

This presentation, for lack of space, has ignored many subsidiary products of industrial arts and construction activities, such as the opportunities for conceiving projects, planning them, facing and learning to solve problems that arise in such projects, and explaining the cooperation and satisfactions inherent in creating something. All these experiences are invaluable concomitants of such firsthand learning.

Perhaps a look ahead is also justified. We need, very definitely, to invite industrial engineers to help us structure some beginning experiences with modern industrial processes that will introduce children to the rationalizations and modes of thinking that are the basis for our industrial productivity. It is possible that children can be led to understand the basic procedures underlying the operations of the automotive and electronic industries, for example, so that they are helped to think with modern industrial conceptual tools. Much research and experimentation is needed in this domain.

CHAPTER VII

Materials for Instruction

Section One: Instructional Resources

Howardine Hoffman and Armen Sarafian

INSTRUCTIONAL resources for the social studies are as broad and varied as the imagination and resourcefulness of a creative teacher. They embrace the total environment. They include materials, tools and equipment in school, and people, places, and things in a community.

The value of instructional resources to the social studies lies in their selection and use in relation to sound purposes and goals. They are means to ends and need to be considered in relation to the principles and goals discussed in each of the other chapters of this Yearbook. They may enrich the learning environment for students by stirring their curiosities, enhancing their perceptions, satisfying their quests for information, and providing them with a wide variety of experiences that deepen their understandings and widen their horizons. Instructional resources add color, interest, and meaning to educational tasks. They encourage experimentation and creativity on the part of the learner. They are the "tangibles" that help bridge the gap between abstract ideas and personal understanding. They are, in fact, the "life-line" of instruction.

MATERIALS ESSENTIAL FOR PROBLEM SOLVING

Any realistic discussion of instructional resources must be tied closely to consideration of the goals one seeks to achieve and the methods one elects to use to achieve these goals. One of the goals of the social studies is the developing of skill in critical thinking. In learning to use problem solving procedures[1] and in acquiring the skills that are needed in looking at alternatives and their possible consequences, the student develops and continues to extend his respect for the significance of evidence. The learner pursues and collects data pertinent to the problem. Instructional resources essential for problem solving will be available in many places and in a variety of ways. However, the very fact of their abundance requires that those having the greatest potential for fulfilling purposes be selected both by the teacher and the individual learner.

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[1] For a discussion of problem solving, see Chapter VI.

In using problem solving procedures in social studies, perhaps more than in any other curriculum area, the need for a great variety of instructional resources is most evident. For example, a student can read the word "harbor" many times and never develop a true concept of it. However, let him visit a harbor, listen to boat noises, watch men and machines unload cargo, observe a fire boat at work, hear a fog horn, and inhale the smell of fish, oily water, and wet rope, and forever after the word "harbor" has real meaning.

True, students cannot always visit a harbor, or a farm, or a court, or the legislature; nevertheless, in the classroom, through various media—books, pamphlets, periodicals, charts, graphs, maps, globes, posters, picture files, bulletin boards, photographs, slides, filmstrips, motion pictures, radio, television, a visiting citizen—they can gain a better understanding of the real meaning of ideas relating to such places, processes, and events. Moreover, through the process of amassing data from many and different sources, accompanied by verification and discussion, students discover interrelationships between concepts and thus grow in their understanding of such important concepts as interdependence, adaptation, changes, technological development, and democracy.

The places, people, events, and process of other cultures, the steps or sequences in enacting a new law, and events in history, can be recreated in the classroom by means of film and tape. Through the miracle of television today's student can be present at the opening session of Congress, a debate in the United Nation Assembly, a presidential press conference, the declaration of independence by a country across the seas, and the formation of a new nation.

Students can, through historical data, learn how men have solved problems of land distribution and use, hunger, disease, greed, desire for power, religious differences, and government. Through the critical examination of many materials—textbooks, encyclopedias, literary works, historical documents, art objects, museum exhibits, films and recordings—students discover ways in which men have sought to bring about solutions to their problems. In light of the records of the past, supplemented by study trips, interviews with qualified persons, and discussions dealing with problems of the present, students can compare and contrast ways in which people today in various parts of the world are attempting to solve their problems. Novels, folk tales, and short stories may reveal the presence or absence of critical thinking on the part of fictional characters as they have sought to solve their problems.

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In using problem solving procedures a student secures and verifies data pertinent to the problem as described in the foregoing paragraphs, but he also organizes and interprets the information in ways that are useful to him and appropriate to the situation. He may use instructional supplies and materials in many ways: to serve as the media through which ideas are expressed, such as in making overlay maps, constructing timelines and murals, recording an interview and preparing a booklet or portfolio, and also to stimulate the need for new techniques and skills which enhance and extend a student's learning.

Figure I suggests some of the possible relationships that exist between problem solving procedures and the utilization of instructional resources. Whether or not these relationships actually exist depends upon the ingenuity and resourcefulness of the creative teacher who envisions what can happen to students when they are deeply challenged.

INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES AND CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT

A number of studies have listed concepts and generalizations that give meaning and direction to the social studies program. In an earlier chapter attention was given to the relationship of basic concepts and content. It is important also to focus upon how concepts are acquired by the learner.

Instructional materials and rich meaningful experiences are indispensable for clarifying, sharpening, and deepening the basic concepts for the social studies. Appropriate audio-visual resources make these "big ideas" usable, memorable, and permanent. An example of the use of instructional materials to build a generalization is contained in the following description of activities and materials used in an experiment in a second grade class.

> *Purpose of the Experiment*: The teacher sought to discover some effective means of bridging the gap between a generalization listed as an objective and the pupils to be taught.
>
> *Background*: The experiment was conducted in a suburban agricultural community which adjoined a large metropolitan city. The social studies unit on the dairy farm furnished an appropriate starting point, since the second grade pupils showed great interest in the activities of their community and in farm life. They were curious about the processes of food production that involve machines, and they were highly interested in modes of transportation. The aim of the teacher was to help students develop and broaden the generalization that *machines increase production*. This "big idea" is related to one basic to the field of geography:
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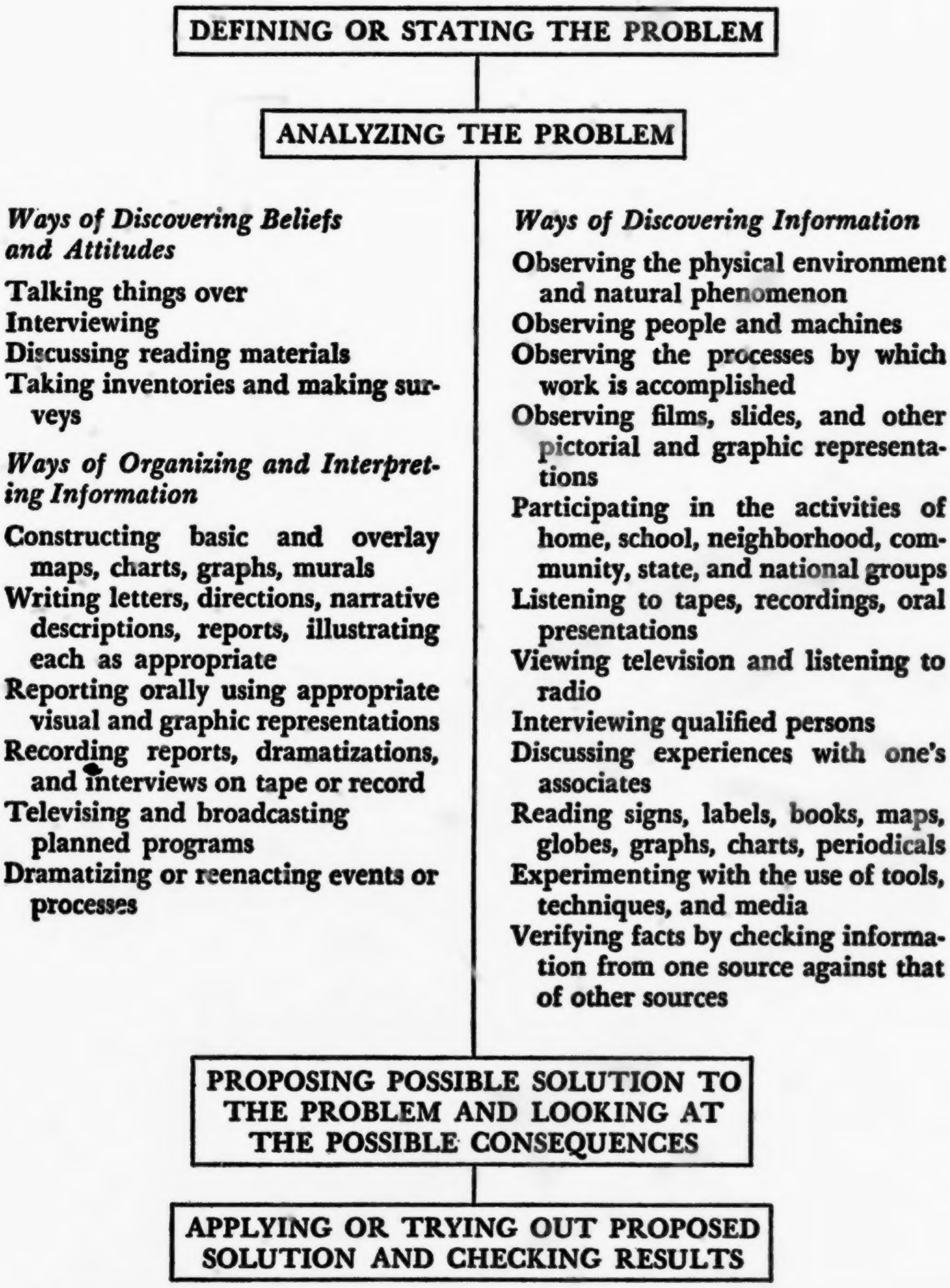
> "Man constantly seeks to satisfy his need for food, clothing, and



DEFINING OR STATING THE PROBLEM

ANALYZING THE PROBLEM

Ways of Discovering Beliefs and Attitudes

Talking things over
Interviewing
Discussing reading materials
Taking inventories and making surveys

Ways of Organizing and Interpreting Information

Constructing basic and overlay maps, charts, graphs, murals
Writing letters, directions, narrative descriptions, reports, illustrating each as appropriate
Reporting orally using appropriate visual and graphic representations
Recording reports, dramatizations, and interviews on tape or record
Televising and broadcasting planned programs
Dramatizing or reenacting events or processes

Ways of Discovering Information

Observing the physical environment and natural phenomenon
Observing people and machines
Observing the processes by which work is accomplished
Observing films, slides, and other pictorial and graphic representations
Participating in the activities of home, school, neighborhood, community, state, and national groups
Listening to tapes, recordings, oral presentations
Viewing television and listening to radio
Interviewing qualified persons
Discussing experiences with one's associates
Reading signs, labels, books, maps, globes, graphs, charts, periodicals
Experimenting with the use of tools, techniques, and media
Verifying facts by checking information from one source against that of other sources

PROPOSING POSSIBLE SOLUTION TO THE PROBLEM AND LOOKING AT THE POSSIBLE CONSEQUENCES

APPLYING OR TRYING OUT PROPOSED SOLUTION AND CHECKING RESULTS

Figure I. A Graphic Relationship between Problem Solving Procedures and the Use of Instructional Resources.

> shelter. In so doing, he tries to adapt, shape, utilize, and exploit the earth to his own ends."[2]

The economists have extended it to—

> "High per capita income is due to high productivity of labor. The total income of a society is its total output of goods."[3]

and—

> "The way to increase the plane of living of all the people is to increase productivity. . . . The grinding poverty in which a large part of the world's population live today is due to the sheer unproductivity of human labor. . . ."[4]

One of the learnings listed as an objective for the dairy unit was "Science and machinery help the dairy farmer." This big idea was reduced to the following subgeneralizations:

> "Machines can do more work than individuals working by hand."
> "Machines work faster than people."
> "Machines have more strength than people."

Procedures: The students had previously visited a dairy farm and had observed animals as well as agricultural machinery. To introduce the generalization that *machines increase production,* the teacher asked pertinent questions and showed the motion picture film "Machines that Help the Farmer" (11 minutes—Film Associates, Inc.). Study prints illustrated important points mentioned in the film. To increase the meaning of these large flat pictures, the teacher made a tape recording in which a farm specialist described different processes and implements depicted in the pictures. Each scene was preceded with a bell signal so that the entire production could be handled by the children wearing earphones during their independent activity period. At the listening-posts, one child was responsible for the tape recorder and another for changing the picture when the bell signal sounded.

A most effective resource was a set of forty 2" × 2" colored photographic adjust slides filmed by the teacher These depicted various pieces of farm equipment operated in the local area. To accompany these slides, the class helped their teacher prepare a tape-recorded narration, complete with sound effects, which reemphasized the basic concepts. In addition, each pupil drew a picture describing a particular farm machine he observed during the field trip. The child's interpretation about his drawing was noted by the teacher who then pasted all twenty-eight pictures on a roll of wrapping paper, wrote captions at the bottom of each picture, and placed the entire roll in the class movie-box. The teacher's tape-recorded commentary, featuring the children's explanations for their pictures, accompanied each picture as it was unwound. This "movie" also was arranged for independent activity group work at the listening-posts.

Processes were demonstrated in class. The boys and girls, for example, tried to hand-tamp some hay into an oatmeal box and tie it into a "bale."

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[2] State Department of Education. *Report of the State Central Committee on Social Studies.* Sacramento, California: the Committee, 1959. p. 34.

[3] *Ibid.,* p. 49.

[4] *Ibid.,* p. 52.

By selecting contrasting methods, the teacher was able to present dramatically a concept of power in concrete form. Another experiment by the class was to cut hay with scissors and then with a power mower. They compared their production of "hay" with that of the side cutter-bar on a tractor as shown in the film. Extremes in contrast helped them to enrich and enlarge their understanding about machines and increased productivity.

Summary: The steps followed in building the generalization were—

1. Identification of concepts and subordinate ideas that bear upon the "big idea."
2. Selection of materials that clarified these ideas.
3. Use of materials in a specific way to focus upon the main idea.
4. Arrangement of concrete experiences that bear upon the key generalization.
5. Use of contrasting experiences to make the essential elements stand out.
6. Linkage of concepts to related concepts (machine power to safety in using machines).
7. Verbalizing by participating in class discussion and by writing appropriate stories.
8. Applying the generalization to a totally different industry.

In building the generalization pertaining to the role of machines and the level of productivity, boys and girls had numerous rich, dynamic experiences ranging from direct and firsthand to vicarious. They used many senses: sight, smell, touch, manipulation. They combined and recombined their experiences by means of oral and written expression. Above all, they acquired a foundation upon which to build more mature and complex insights.

Criteria for the Production and Selection of Supplies, Materials, and Equipment

The production of learning materials and tools is big business. The selection of materials from among the many that are produced and marketed is important business. Producers and educators carry responsibilities for creating the ingredients of an educative environment where learning can be purposeful, meaningful, and self-enhancing for each student. To fulfill these responsibilities requires understanding of our national purposes and of the role of education in achieving these national goals, as well as an awareness of both the potentialities and the limitations of supplies, materials, and equipment.

Since things in the environment may either facilitate or hinder learning, depending upon their use, it is incumbent upon producers and educators to develop and use sound criteria that will continuously improve the quality and usability of the ever-increasing number and kinds of instructional resources available for teaching-learning purposes.

The first requirement in both the production and selection of a film, a map, a recording, an encyclopedia, or a textbook intended as an instructional tool for social studies is that its content and format contribute effectively to the accepted purposes of the social studies. "But whose purposes?" one might ask. It is precisely this type of question that gives rise to the need for continuous study and assessment of the goals of the social studies in public education in our country and of the function and use of instructional resources in learning.

Some of the specific questions about content that require consideration of both producers and selectors of material are:

> To what extent does the material foster and contribute to the development of basic concepts and generalizations?
>
> To what extent are these basic ideas consistent with the goals of the social studies?
>
> In what ways is the instructional resource useful in developing critical thinking?
>
> To what extent and in what ways does the resource foster problem solving procedures?
>
> To what degree is the content authentic, unbiased, up to date, and adequately and appropriately documented?

A second criterion in the production and selection of an instructional resource is that it be appropriate to the interests, needs, and educational level of the students who will use it. Since most instructional resources can serve different purposes under varying circumstances, it is the special responsibility of educators to select those materials that most adequately meet the criteria of appropriateness.

Third, the content, organization, and design of any instructional resource—a reference book, a televised dramatization, a current periodical, or an exhibit—should make use of the best that is known about human development and how learners learn. Agreed that more research is needed on the contributions of various types of instructional materials and equipment to the learning process, it is nevertheless evident that this criterion needs to be taken much more seriously in these times of rapid and relatively inexpensive methods of reproducing pictorial and printed materials. The authors and producers have a moral obligation to children and youth and to the taxpayers of the nation to make use of the best that is known about the principles of growth, development, and learning.

Educators, too, need to make discriminating judgments to insure a reinforcing and constructive relationship between what children learn and the experiences they have. To be more explicit, social studies materials that structure students' responses as to kind, color, and space; those that call for unnecessary and dull repetition; those that stifle creativity; and those that require adherence to the "right answer" without encouraging speculation and discussion of alternative ideas do not meet the criterion of educational soundness.

A fourth criterion, and one that can be used by both the producer and the selector of instructional resources, is that the material should be presented in ways that will encourage and facilitate the interrelationship of social studies learnings and the learnings inherent in experiences in language arts, mathematics, science, music, art, and literature. The producer can raise questions that encourage students to extend their inquiries and to pursue other related interests. He can use illustrations that stimulate questioning, discussion, debate, and verification. He can make certain that factual materials about living in various parts of the world deal with the values, the literature, the arts, and the basic activities of the people of a culture as well as with the climate, topography, and products of a country.

The educator who selects and uses an instructional resource seeks to answer: To what extent does appropriate use of the material require and/or encourage the use of a wide variety of other types of instructional resources? In what way does the content of this particular resource reinforce, supplement, and duplicate the content of other resources? To what extent do the experiences inherent in using this instructional material reinforce and make purposeful the skills that we are seeking to develop in other curriculum fields?

Fifth, each instructional supply, material, or item of equipment should possess the physical characteristics that encourage its use. It should be functional and attractive. It should be durable and safe to use. It should be authentic and up to date. Each item should be of such quality as to permit repeated use where such is appropriate. Though economy is not the first quality to consider, it is none the less important.

The sixth criterion is one to be used primarily in the selection of an instructional resource for use in a particular school or classroom situation or in relation to a specific program. It is this: The philosophy inherent in the material and its potential uses should be in harmony with the philosophy of the board, the administrators, and the teachers. To illustrate, in a district where the board and staff believe in and encourage individualization and differentiation of learning experiences according to needs and capacities of the pupils, the quantity of materials of a single title and the variety of material would be different from that in a district where the board and administrators conceive of education as being achieved through the use of the same experiences and materials for all children of a given grade at the same time.

A seventh criterion is that in selecting instructional materials for a particular group of children there should be ample provision for variety and balance appropriate to their needs and capacities and to the purposes of the social studies program. What types of materials and which ones are needed to insure optimum learning is a recurring question and can be answered best in terms of the specific purposes or goals of the program and the experiences and methods encouraged and provided by the classroom teacher.

Although the above criteria have related primarily to the production and selection of things; that is, of supplies, materials, and equipment, they might, with slight modification, apply also to people, places, and events used as instructional resources. The creative teacher is faced with countless decisions revolving around the question: Which are the best resources to use with each of these students which will help them discover the most appropriate solutions to significant questions?

Use of Textbooks

Books are the great economizers of learning, and at their best are exceptionally valuable treasure chests of knowledge and motivation. Printed words, however, can be misleading, and their meanings confusing. Many of the terms used regularly in the social studies represent a high level of abstraction which is beyond the experiential background of boys and girls. Too often teachers assume that children comprehend these abstract verbal symbols whereas in reality only the outer shell exists and the kernel of meaning is missing. The great pitfall of the social studies is verbiage, and injudicious use of the printed page leads to a deluding, memoriter type of learning. It is essential, therefore, for the teacher to understand the contributions and shortcomings of books and to become acquainted with the most effective means of helping boys and girls comprehend and evaluate what they read.

The following are cited as possible advantages of textbooks:

1. They are economical, making it possible for a large number of children to use these instructional resources at a very small cost per pupil.
2. They help individualize instruction, because they furnish a variety of reading levels and source materials. Equipping teachers with multiple textbooks on similar, as well as varied, subjects is a growing trend and augurs well for accommodating the diverse backgrounds and abilities represented in typical classrooms.
3. They offer guidance on how to study, read more effectively, weigh evidence, and solve problems. Properly organized textbooks not only furnish information and inspiration but teach children how to learn.
4. They help organize subject matter and furnish a point of departure for further investigation and discovery.

5. They frequently contain aids and techniques which competent, creative teachers have developed. Beginning, inexperienced teachers, in particular, can profit from the suggestions in the teachers' manuals and other collateral material supplied by textbook publishers.

The following are often cited as some of their shortcomings:

1. Most textbooks furnish empty generalizations rather than basic data to help learners make decisions or solve problems.
2. They treat a large number of topics in a sketchy manner.
3. They occasionally offer misconceptions or opinions that cannot be universally applied to all regions of the country or of the world.
4. Too often the textbook is regarded as the chief source of authority and there is too great a reliance on what the author has stated.
5. Many social studies textbooks become rapidly outdated. Because of the large financial outlay, schools are reluctant to discard them, and thus obsolete materials that have not kept pace with our rapidly changing world remain in the classroom.

These criticisms about textbooks are basically indictments of poor teaching and misuse of instructional materials. The shortcomings can be overcome if teachers accept textbooks as "teaching assistants" rather than content to be "covered and remembered" at all costs. Books should be used as sources of information, of help in solving problems, of guidance in choosing one or more alternative courses of action, of entertainment and enjoyment, of new insights and appreciations. Children should be taught to evaluate and criticize what they read, not accept blindly the author's verbal formulations. They should compare and contrast one source with another. One upper grade class, for example, read the trial of John Peter Zenger in several reference books and then compared the event with the motion picture version, "The Story that Couldn't Be Printed." Upon completeing their study, they realized that there were a number of different interpretations of the same significant historical episode. These pupils learned to evaluate, to judge, and to discriminate. They were taught how to ferret out the truth by studying several sources. Because of lessons like this, they will be less likely to fall prey to an unthinking acquiescence of what they see in print or in pictures.

To gain the most value from textbooks, pupils must learn specific reading techniques: how to become familiar with the author's purposes, plan of organization, and major ideas and how to utilize reader aids such as—

1. Table of Contents
2. Chapter headings
3. Section or paragraph headings
4. Indented paragraphs
5. Introductory and concluding paragraphs of chapters
6. Summaries

7. Italicized words and sentences
8. Topic sentences
9. Listings: a, b, c; 1, 2, 3; first, second, third
10. Maps, graphs, and charts
11. Explanatory footnotes and pronunciation guides.

Social studies content is often clustered in large reading units. Thus, children need careful guidance in how to scan and to search for data and meanings. Finally, emphasis should be given to vocabulary, since even simple social studies' terms may represent complex concepts which students comprehend in only a superficial sense. In short, teachers should realize that reading is not only a process of drawing meaning out of a printed page but also of bringing to it meaning accumulated from a rich set of past experiences.

Books today are more attractive than ever. A revolution has taken place in format, style, and readability. Color is used not only for esthetic reasons but to show distinctions, to emphasize key factors, and to heighten realism. Pictures, maps, charts, and graphs are intertwined with the verbal text. Children need to learn how to capitalize from these sources of information. They must be taught to "read" pictures: to enumerate, to describe, and to interpret what they see. Above all, they should be expected to discuss the pictorial symbols in textbooks and to respond critically to them.

Textbook publishers are increasingly recognizing the close interrelationships between books and audio-visual materials. Some firms are correlating textbooks and films, flat picture sets, and records. A growing trend is to publish printed readers based upon, but not duplicating, a film story and illustrated with pictures from the motion picture. Finally, a number of textbook publishers now own film production and distribution departments.

USE OF TELEVISION

Television is markedly affecting schools. Findings from research reveal that children entering school today have an increased precocity over their counterparts of a quarter century ago.[5] In towns where television exists, children in the first grade score approximately 30 per cent higher on vocabulary tests standardized on the population of 20 years ago. Children have a wider, although somewhat superficial, knowledge of certain phases of science, geography, international affairs, and politics. They can talk about and recognize more than they understand. They are acquainted with more status figures; they are exposed to "adult" kinds of information. They are, in short, ready for a faster start and have a tendency to become bored at some of the methods and content appropriate for pupils of the pre-television era.

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[5] Schram, Wilbur. "Television in the Life of the Child—Implications for the School." *New Teaching Aids for the American Classroom.* Stanford, California: The Institute for Communication Research, 1960. p. 65.

In the light of these findings, teachers face a great challenge. Recognizing the "immature maturity" of their pupils, they need to provide learning experiences that do not seem too elementary on the one hand and do not neglect basic understandings on the other. They should be aware of what the child is seeing and should capitalize on the interests and insights stimulated by mass communication media. Using landmarks in the television world of children, teachers can build effective bridges especially in the area of the social studies, and they can furnish experiences and content that fill in the gaps from out-of-school life. In the next section of this chapter is presented a detailed discussion of television as an instructional resource.

Use of Free Materials

At the call of every teacher are countless free and inexpensive materials such as pamphlets, pictures, filmstrips, recordings, motion picture films, models, posters, charts, and graphs. At their best, these aids add variety to the instructional program, supply specialized information not readily available, and furnish current and timely data. At their worst, these fugitive materials present subtle advertising, propaganda, and pressure. Such materials can be used by the teacher as examples of how pressure groups work, thus contributing to the development of critical thinking. If the school is aware of the advantages and disadvantages, strengths and limitations of sponsored materials, it can establish adequate safeguards so that their greatest contributions can be tapped.

One of the best sources of worthwhile free resources for the social studies program is industrial or trade associations. A number of them such as the dairy industry, the American Petroleum Institute, the Association of American Railroads, and the steel industry prepare all kinds of visual aids. Other sources are travel firms, transportation concerns, agricultural associations, government printing offices and bureaus, labor unions, business and industrial associations, utilities firms, specific corporations, and professional associations. Numerous foreign countries have information services; consulates and embassies frequently supply films, pictures, and booklets about their countries and suggest possible speakers for classrooms. There are a number of references published annually which list, classify, and partially evaluate free and inexpensive materials. Among these are:

Educator's Index to Free Materials (Educators Progress Service)

Elementary Teachers Guide to Free Curriculum Materials (Educators Progress Service)
Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials (George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville)
Sources of Free and Inexpensive Educational Materials (Field Enterprises, Inc.)
Vertical File Index (H. W. Wilson Company)

Teachers must exercise great judgment when selecting and using free materials. The criteria discussed earlier in this chapter should be followed carefully when considering whether to place such materials at the disposal of pupils. Free aids usually have a promotional purpose, and their use by schools may imply an endorsement of the sponsor's product, services, or point of view. Overuse of fugitive materials, moreover, may penalize publishers of social studies materials whose primary function is to supply classroom needs. Educational film producers, textbook firms, and teaching aids companies design their products to serve the learning process. They conduct extensive investigations and evaluate a great body of research before determining what will best achieve significant instructional goals for the social studies. Such careful preparation is not the rule with producers of sponsored aids, and the latter may have surface appeal but fail to make significant contributions to learning. It would be advisable, therefore, to ascertain what is available from educational suppliers before securing free resources. Above all, each school or school district should have a written policy on the use of free and sponsored materials. Such a policy can serve as a guide to the teaching staff and to business and community groups.

Children enjoy receiving tangible items in the mail. They can be the teacher's helpful partners in locating and collecting free materials. Many a person can recall with fond memories his experience in the elementary school when he was commissioned by his class to write to a dairy concern, rubber tire company, grainery, or watch manufacturer and received by return mail some samples, pictures, and booklets. The pupils can also help in arranging, organizing, and displaying what has been collected. They gain in critical thinking by having an opportunity to evaluate the materials received and to pass judgment on what should be shared with other classes or filed for future use. Ideally, each school should set up an up-to-date file of sample materials in the office or library and should organize a school catalog of sources. Such cooperation within the school will lessen the likelihood of overburdening the distributors of free materials. Good public relations with sponsors can be maintained by asking for no more than the necessary amount of materials, sending a school letter rather than numerous requests for the same material, reporting on how the material will be used, and indicating ways in which the sponsor might be of further help.

In return, producers of free materials can help provide schools with the best available learning materials by:

1. Discussing plans in advance of production
2. Discovering what will fit the curriculum and meet the needs of children
3. Adapting their materials to these needs
4. Avoiding oversimplification of ideas, overuse of plot, overemphasis on emotion
5. Stating their sponsorship plainly but without undue emphasis
6. Placing no obligation on the recipient
7. Furnishing an evaluation sheet for reporting back the usefulness of the materials.

COMMUNITY RESOURCES

The community serves as a richly equipped laboratory for the social studies program. It offers numerous avenues for exploration and investigation; it furnishes exciting instructional aids; and it provides worthwhile outlets for exuberant pupil interests. Every classroom can benefit from the local resources that are usually at the beck and call of the creative teacher. Sources are everywhere—on farms, in businesses, industries, and city government. Invaluable are museums, zoological gardens, historical societies, and newspapers. People are important too, and within the community the school can find many partners—well-informed, delightful persons who are willing to speak to classes or to aid in numerous other ways.

If the school is truly a "community school," its teachers are acquainted with the local area and know how to capitalize on its resources. Some school districts have discovered great value in compiling a resource file which lists pertinent information that can be helpful in planning an instructional trip or securing a resource visitor. In a number of situations, boys and girls have assisted in preparing this file, and such an experience has been indeed memorable for them. Older boys and girls, moreover, are given opportunity to investigate various phases of local government or to serve their community in significant ways. One group of eighth grade pupils, for example, undertook to write a series of reports about different aspects of their community. These reports were so well executed that the local Chamber of Commerce printed them in booklet form and distributed them widely. This project was a memorable one for the boys and girls; they obviously became "founts of knowledge" about their community.

The public library is one of the most valuable resources for the social studies. Not only does it contain reference materials, periodicals, books, and documents that supplement classwork; but it also provides a number of other services, sometimes unheralded, which can be of real asset to teachers. One of the most recent activities of public libraries has been lending motion picture films to schools and community groups. Films usually rotate among libraries within a county or district, and are deposited for a given period of time in each library. Frequently, these films contain social studies content, and consequently the alert teacher may discover an unexpected aid to learning. Close collaboration of schools and the local library can lead to another dividend—that of displays complete with models and other graphic materials. These library displays can be so organized that they depict and commemorate historical events or they relate in other ways to the social studies curriculum.

The local newspaper provides information such as announcements of visits by distinguished foreign visitors, reports of achievements by local citizens, and notices about important events. Often it is possible to invite these distinguished people to the school and have them speak to classes or an entire assembly. Newspaper files of back issues may be used as source material.

Museums offer numerous services such as the lending of complete displays, individual artifacts, motion picture films, flat pictures, filmstrips, slides, and other audio-visual materials; resource speakers from the museum staff; demonstrations; Saturday and vacation classes for pupils; "Children's" or "Junior" museums; and opportunities for instructional trips. Some school districts are increasing the educational qualities of the excursion to the museum by developing colored 2″ × 2″ slides of specific museum exhibits for specific social studies units of work. Before taking the trip, the pupils see these slides and become prepared to draw meanings from the exhibits they will see.

Instructonal trips have many values, but their contributions rest in a large measure on the resourcefulness, preparation, and follow-up of the classroom teacher. To become effective, "study" trips require careful planning. The teacher should take the trip in advance in order to ascertain the elements upon which to focus. In preparation for a trip to a housing project, one third grade teacher visited numerous places in her mushrooming community and with her candid camera filmed numerous stages of development. Here was a walnut grove, lush and green. A few days later, her camera recorded the uprooting and burning of the trees. Later scenes revealed the construction of streets, curbs, and sidewalks. Finally, her photography unveiled the rise of houses, churches, schools, and a business center. In a few short weeks she had captured as photographic slides the drama of the changes transpiring all about her pupils. These slides were shown to the class before and after the instructional trip to this construction project. The children subsequently wrote a story for each slide, tape-recorded it, and played the entire production to their parents.

Perhaps the greatest aid for the teacher is the resource visitor. Ever community abounds with persons in all walks of life who have the versatility, knowledge, and communication skill to share their experiences, give a demonstration, or impart information to social studies classes. Community helpers, farmers, businessmen, scientists, industrialists, foreign travelers, government officials—these and many others can help bring the world to the classroom, often with collateral audio-visual materials. It is possible, moreover, to find many parents to serve the class. One second grade teacher annually invites parents to an evening construction workshop. In a few short hours 50 assistants help her construct all kinds of instructional aids. Another teacher inventories the hobbies of parents and finds many occasions to seek their assistance and creativity. These two examples could be multiplied many times to illustrate the wealth of resources available to every classroom. A helpful procedure is to maintain a school-wide card file on resource persons which includes such information as content of the individual's presentation and grades in which it may be best utilized.

This section has pointed up the great number and variety of instructional resources available for the social studies program. These can make a noteworthy contribution to significant educational goals or be superficial, meaningless experiences. The results depend upon the most important resource of all—people, above all, *Teachers* who choose materials wisely and use them creatively.

Section Two: Use of Television

Elmer F. Pflieger

Television is the most recent of the many audio-visual aids used in teaching. It is one of the teaching tools available to the teacher of the social studies in the modern school. It is potentially the most dynamic of all the audio-visual devices which the teacher has at his dis-

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This section was reviewed by John U. Michaelis, University of California, Berkeley, California; Myles Platt, Midwest Program on Airborne Television Instruction, Purdue, Indiana; John J. Scanlon, The Ford Foundation, New York, New York; and Thomas H. Rothschild, Florida West Coast Educational Television, St. Petersburg, Florida.

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posal. If wisely used, it can be a highly effective device in aiding the teacher and in improving the quality of education.

For school purposes television must be considered educational and not merely entertaining. In this respect most people must be reoriented in their concepts and ideas about television. Children and young people whose experience with television has been largely in the area of entertainment must be helped to see its educational values and implications. This is equally true of teachers and other adults. Television as used in schools has this purpose: It is educational and not entertainment. However, lessons are made as appealing and interesting as possible. But they are instructional lessons first and entertaining experiences second. For this reason we speak about lessons in educational television, not about shows.

Educational television is an important help for the teacher, but it is not a panacea for solving all of the educational ills of schools. It can help improve the educational program. But its effective use needs to be learned. The teacher must be its master and must be in control, as he must be in control in the use of any other of the many teaching devices which he has at his disposal: textbooks, library materials, films, maps, globes, and the like.

Children come to school accustomed to entertainment, to high level showmanship, to swift and vivid presentations, and to dramatic programs. They have had a diet of television films and an exposure to all types of pictorial images. Thus, schools are faced with the necessity of using methods and instructional resources that are exciting and dynamic. This condition poses a great challenge to teachers and producers of audio-visual materials, since poorly presented lessons compare very unfavorably with the expertness and excitement of commercial mass media. If instructional television, classroom motion pictures or face-to-face teaching are dull, children are quickly bored.

It is clear then that television has its contributions, as well as its disadvantages. Children come to school with a potential for a faster start than ever before. They have had considerable exposure to images of all types, and they seek a fast-moving type of entertainment. To cope with these pre-school and out-of-school stimuli taxes the creativity, ingenuity, and imagination of teachers. These conditions can have a strong, salutary effect upon the social studies program and can lead to the organization of a rich, dynamic curriculum.

Television has the following advantages that relate particularly to the social studies:

1. It bridges time and space, instantaneously revealing an event in a far distant place.
2. It "personalizes" great personalities of the times and acquaints viewers

with key personages in government, politics, science, music, art, literature, and other fields.

3. It recreates and dramatizes the past, using the "know-how" of the entertainment industry in producing vivid, exciting reenactments.
4. It portrays social conditions—usually edited versions of reality—which focus upon needed improvements and developments.

Commercial and Educational Television

In any discussion of school television a distinction must be made between commercial and educational telecasting. It is important, too, to recognize the contributions of each to the school program.

In their regular programs, commercial channels carry various telecasts which are suitable for school purposes, both for in-school and out-of-school viewing. In general these telecasts are of three types: (1) regularly-scheduled telecasts which have sound educational content and value, (2) special telecasts which are educationally significant, and (3) courses which are specifically designed for instructional purposes. Examples of each of these types of telecasts are: (1) news analysis and current affairs discussion programs, (2) opening of Congress and inauguration of the President, (3) Continental Classroom. The teacher of the social studies needs to become familiar with the educational telecasts in each of these three types which are available on the television channels of his area. Then he has the choice of using them as they fit into particular units in his courses or as enrichment materials.

To make the best use of commercial television, a number of school districts prepare weekly or monthly lists of selected programs that have curriculum implications. Pupils are encouraged to view these suggested telecasts and to share the ideas and information presented in them. In addition, they are guided in evaluating what they see, in selecting their television diet wisely, and in developing discrimination. Older boys and girls engage in propaganda analysis by comparing several news broadcasts and news commentaries. Newspaper accounts and editorials about programs like "Meet the Press" or major addresses are analyzed to note subtle interpretations. In these ways, children are helped to engage in critical, independent thinking—one of the important goals of social studies instruction.

Commercial television has another asset for education—that of providing motion pictures for classroom use. Some of the finest documentaries, first presented over television, have subsequently been reproduced as educational films and are available for rental or purchase. Perhaps one of the most promising trends in increasing this supply of films is video-tape. Video-tape recorders are decreasing in price, and as their cost diminishes, their use in schools should increase. It can do with telecasts what the audio-tape recorder has done with radio, forums, and other oral presentations. With these recorders, television programs can readily be taped and reused, thus making available a wealth of valuable current and historical material. Educational television and closed-circuit stations, particularly, are finding this tool invaluable in enhancing the scope and the range of their offerings.

In some sections of the country commercial channels also regularly carry specific educational telecasts through arrangements with local school systems. Such telecasting on commercial channels is akin to telecasting on educational channels.

Educational channels are non-commercial and are devoted exclusively to providing educational telecasts to the schools and to the communities they serve. They carry no advertising, are non-profit, and are usually supported by educational and cultural agencies and through voluntary contributions. The number of these channels on the air is slowly but steadily growing. At the present time about half of the states have one or more educational channels in operation. Altogether, more than 250 channels have been reserved for educational purposes.

Educational television offers the following types of programs that have value for the social studies curriculum:

1. In-school lessons
2. Out-of-school instruction
3. College courses in the social sciences
4. Liberal arts and cultural information.

Not only can children profit from well-executed E.T.V. programs but teachers and prospective teachers can build strong backgrounds of knowledge and understanding. Community television stations exist in a number of regions and operate under the special reservations of the F.C.C. These stations not only broadcast direct, formal lessons, but also programs of special interest related directly to the curriculum.

Unless the Educational Television Station is well supported financially and has an expert professional staff, there is danger that the quality and standards of the telecasts will fall far below those of commercial programs and thus have low audience appeal. The success of educational telecasts, whether over commercial or community stations, depends upon the fluency and appeal of the T.V. teacher. To be effective, he must have a pleasant personality and voice, be adaptable and flexible, have a sense of timing, and make resourceful use of a variety of aids. Television provides the medium for multiplying the "personal" contacts of outstanding teachers and presenting well-planned, well-organized lessons to large numbers of pupils. Such instruction is especially productive when it brings to the classroom that which is not normally available. It is most effective when it whets the interest, stimulates the curiosity, and raises questions. Superior television teachers try to enhance two-way communication by encouraging audience participation. Their lessons are personalized; they use techniques, such as questions addressed to "Mary" or "Joe," and they give out assignments that can be done under the supervision of the classroom teacher. Individualized television instruction is in the offing as a result of new discoveries. One of the most recent inventions makes possible the use of a teletest teaching machine attached to the television receiver. By pushing buttons, the pupil can reply to questions posed in the telecast. Electronic impulses at the bottom of each televised image contain the correct answer, and pupils discover immediately whether they have responded correctly. The machine keeps a record of the number of buttons pushed to obtain the correct answer for each question. Certain fields, such as geography, can be effectively "taught" in this way.

Just around the corner is international television. By means of several satellites in space, relay facilities will make possible the transmission of television signals to any part of the earth. This impending development has strong implications for the social studies and compounds the challenge television poses for schools. Are the schools ready to measure up to the challenge?

Open-Circuit and Closed-Circuit Television

This discussion so far has been dealing with the phase of television which is primarily open-circuit. This is a term which refers to the telecasts which are open to any viewer, both in and out of school. A viewer merely needs a receiver with the conventional channels to receive the television signals in either the every high frequency (VHF, Channels 2 to 13) or the ultra high frequency (UHF, Channels 14 to 83) bands. For ultra high frequency the viewer needs a special adapter to use with most conventional television receivers. Much educational telecasting is of the open-circuit type. Both commerical and educational television stations do mainly open-circuit telecasting.

But there is telecasting of another kind. These are telecasts made on closed-circuits. As the name implies these telecasts are not open for general viewing. They are closed and are telecast for special audiences and to particular receivers. A considerable amount of educational broadcasting, especially at the college level, is done on closed-circuit.

A number of areas also use closed-circuit television for elementary and secondary school broadcasting. The most extensive example of this type of telecasting for schools is the experimental program at Hagerstown (Washington County), Maryland.

In-School and Out-of-School Viewing

Another aspect of television to be considered concerns the place where it is viewed, whether it is in-school or out-of-school. Most telecastings on educational channels is for in-school use, as is some of that carried by commercial channels. The latter, however, often carry educationally-usable telecasts at times when schools are not in session. The teacher of the social studies who is aware of such programs can use them for making assignments for out-of-school viewing. Just as the teacher assigns supplementary reading and field trips, he may and should assign special viewing of television programs for pupil reporting and/or for enrichment of class discussion. The television schedules of local stations will be helpful to him in making these assignments.

By and large the remainder of this section on the use of television will deal with its in-school use.

Using Television in the Classroom

The only additional equipment that a teacher needs to use television in his classroom is a television receiver. Important for effective use is that the reception be excellent. Attention needs to be given to both the video and the audio reception and to a proper antenna. Both audio and video reception must be good. Poor reception of educational telecasts is inexcusable. This refers to all telecasting whether it be on educational or commercial channels, whether it be open or closed circuit, whether it be regular lessons in a television course or special programs suitable for use in the social studies course.

Some suggestions to be taken into consideration in setting up a room for television viewing and in using educational telecasts are the following:

1. Use 21- or 24-inch sets with front directional speakers.
2. Group a maximum of 30 to 35 pupils around each set.
3. Arrange seating so that pupils are in comfortable positions and can view without eye strain.
4. Do not darken room but keep direct light from reflecting on the television screen.
5. Make adequate provisions for note-taking when this is desired or required.

6. Prepare the class for the telecast by referring to available guides and bulletins regarding the content of the lesson or program.
7. Be ready to begin viewing with the start of the telecast.
8. Routinize such factors as taking attendance, collecting papers, distributing materials, and turning sets on and off.

THE TEACHERS

A television class has at least two teachers: a classroom teacher and a studio teacher. Each has a specific job to do and each has particular responsibilities.

The classroom teacher using television has the regular responsibilities of any classroom teacher. These responsibilities include such duties as giving and checking assignments, using a variety of classroom techniques, carrying on class discussions, learning to know pupils, giving and scoring tests, marking report cards, maintaining classroom discipline, and carrying out the many other duties of the classroom teacher. The chief difference between a teacher of a television class and a teacher of a conventional class is that the former uses television as a chief medium of instruction.

Pupils in television classes also have another teacher. This is the studio teacher. Experience shows that this teacher is also very real to the pupils in the classes. Ordinarily over a period of time a fine relationship develops between the studio teacher and the individual pupils. This is especially possible if some provision is made whereby the studio teacher can occasionally visit pupils in their classrooms. In this way he becomes more than an image on their television screens.

Another important factor in television teaching is that the studio teacher is ordinarily relieved of all other teaching duties. He devotes full time to the preparation of his daily television lesson. Because of this time for preparation he is often able to present materials and ideas in the television lesson which the regular classroom teacher is not able to do. The necessity of preparing for several classes prevents the regular classroom teacher from doing so. Television lessons are, therefore, usually richer in content, in the use of visual materials, and in the techniques used to present ideas.

THE CLASSROOM

Most television instruction goes to regular classes in conventional classrooms. The teacher uses the television lesson as he would any other audio-visual materials. He makes the decision as to whether or not a class views a particular lesson in the light of a number of considerations. However, in the case of the regular television courses, the use of the television lessons is a daily affair or at least it is used several times a week. So television as a medium of instruction occupies a considerable portion of the class time.

Some schools are using television to meet certain special school situations. They are using television in what has come to be known as larger-than-normal classes. These classes may have a hundred or more pupils. Classes meet in larger-than-normal classrooms or in rooms large enough to accommodate the larger number of pupils. These rooms may be auditoriums, lunchrooms, study halls, or specially designed large classrooms.

Ordinarily each of these large rooms will have a number of television receivers. There may be anywhere from two to eight sets in the room, with pupils seated in groups of approximately 30 about each set. In each of these classrooms there may be more than one teacher or a teacher and an aide. The teacher may also have some clerical help to assist him with various clerical and routine duties.

Duties in the larger-than-normal class are highly routinized in order to conserve both time and energy. Among these routine duties are such as distributing and collecting papers and other materials, taking attendance, and turning sets on and off.

Classroom Follow-up

Television lessons are ordinarily about 20 to 30 minutes in length. Since social studies periods are usually longer, varying in length from 40 to 60 minutes and in some cases even longer than that, the classroom teacher in both the regular-size classes and the larger-than-normal classes has time for the classroom follow-up. "Follow-up" is a term devoted to classroom work either before or after the television lesson. Sometimes the period before the lesson is referred to as a warm-up time. Experience indicates that most classroom teachers using television would like a short period of perhaps five minutes prior to the television lesson. They would like a longer period of some 15 to 20 minutes after the television lesson for the classroom follow-up.

This follow-up time is used in a variety of ways. Some of the most successful uses are the following: Discussing questions and topics related to the lesson, discussing questions raised by pupils, answering pupils' questions, reviewing, testing, making and checking assignments, giving reports, and working in small groups. Some social studies teachers use this time for the presentation of additional material related to the lesson. Other teachers also use some time during the course of the week for discussions related to current affairs.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF TELEVISION TO THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

Educational television has made possible a number of important contributions to the educational program. The following points refer primarily to a regular course prepared for classroom use.

1. The medium makes it possible to present a variety and an increased number of visual materials. Each pupil in a television class has a front-row seat and is able to see well the visual materials which the studio teacher presents. The camera can magnify any item to screen size, so that it is readily seen by each pupil in the class.
2. The studio teacher is able to devote much more time to the needed research for each lesson and to the preparation of the lesson than is the regular classroom teacher. The typical studio teacher teaches a single lesson each day. This means that he can devote full time to the preparation of this daily lesson. Therefore, a good studio teacher should be able to present a better lesson than is possible for the classroom teacher who has a number of preparations and a full schedule of classes each day.
3. Television teaching is concentrated teaching, there are no interruptions. Once the lesson is begun, it goes through to its completion. For this reason experience has shown that much more can be taught in television time than in equal time in a regular classroom.
4. Television teaching uses a team approach in teaching to a larger degree than is possible in conventional teaching. The courses and lessons are carefully planned, usually by a team consisting of some or all of the following people: studio teacher, classroom viewing teachers, supervisor, producer, and administrators. This has the advantage of incorporating into courses and lessons the thinking and knowledge of a number of people each of whom can make a contribution to the development of superior lessons.
5. Good demonstration lessons have been recognized as a fine device for both pre-service and in-service education of teachers. Television makes it possible to present good lessons for many teachers to see. Experience indicates that a considerable number of teachers view television lessons, get new ideas, and incorporate these ideas in their own classroom teaching.

WEAKNESSES IN THE USE OF TELEVISION

Television teaching brings with it primarily these three important weaknesses:

1. Television teaching reduces the opportunity for class discussion. Pupils cannot ordinarily raise questions for clarification and/or discussion while the lesson is on the air. Also the amount of time available for class discussion is reduced because of the time devoted to the television lesson. This problem is further accentuated in the larger-than-normal class situation where fewer pupils have a chance to enter into the discussion and where the size of the classroom often presents an additional problem.
2. A second item is the inability to have two-way communication between the studio teacher and the classroom pupils. In some situations this weakness is somewhat minimized by a number of practices: regular telephone

communications between classroom teachers and studio teacher, periodic meetings of all teachers involved, letters from pupils to the studio teacher, and visits of the studio teacher to the classrooms.

3. A third item is that the television lesson is often a "one-shot" affair. Unless the lesson is on video-tape or on kinescope, it cannot be repeated unless the live lesson is done again. Doing the lesson live has distinct advantages over a taped or kinescoped lesson. Yet it has the disadvantage of not being able to be repeated for points missed for for absent pupils.

These weaknesses may not be insurmountable and further research and experience in the use of educational television may give some clues as to ways of reducing their impact. Parenthetically it should be mentioned that the weaknesses of regular classroom teaching are frequently not brought into open view as dramatically as are those of teaching by television.

OUTCOMES OF THE USE OF EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION

In addition to the contributions mentioned earlier there are a number of further significant outcomes in the use of educational television which are important enough to mention.

1. Television provides the teacher with the use of another teaching device. Just as the addition of textbooks, supplementary books, maps, globes, films, recordings, and filmstrips extended the teaching devices of the social studies teacher and the learning possibilities of children, so can the addition of television add tremendously to the breadth and depth of the educational program. Used wisely and well, television can be an effective educational medium.
2. Television can help to improve the quality of the educational program. The very medium makes this possible as do the techniques and methods which are inherent in television teaching. These relate primarily to the team approach to teaching and the opportunity for a teacher to devote full time to the preparation of a lesson.
3. The wise use of television in the school program should help to raise the viewing level of television audiences. If teachers make assignments involving out-of-school television viewing, children and young people will be helped to develop a sense of discrimination in the selection of television programs.
4. As schools learn to use television in their total program, teachers themselves become alert to good programs which are on the air. Gradually this sense of good and worthwhile television viewing should carry over to pupils and through them to the community.

Section Three: Biography in the Social Studies

Ralph Adams Brown

Is the individual important in today's world? How important have individuals been in the changing of society? Just what has the role of the individual human being been in the development of history?

What emphasis should teachers give to the stimulus and value of individual intelligence, courage and perseverance? These are some of the problems that must be faced by any elementary school teacher concerned with the use of biographical material in his social studies class. But there is more. Even when the teacher believes in and desires to use these materials, he must decide when? how much? and the methods by which he will incorporate them into the curriculum. How have teachers, in both the past and the present, solved these problems or answered these questions?

In the Western World there have been, over past centuries, several patterns for organizing historical materials at the elementary school level. The chronological presentation of historical events, the study of social groups, organization in terms of economic and political forces—all of these have acted as the skeleton on which to string the muscles of historical information and understanding. In addition, considerable attention has been given, during the last 200 years, to the selection of individuals as the core around whom facts of various kinds are grouped and interpretations are made.

Such an emphasis upon the role of individuals is known as the biographical method. The advocates of this approach believe that in order to make the past seem more vital and meaningful for children, their orientation to history should be by way of individuals—other human beings who actually lived, had problems, frustrations and satisfactions just as the students studying about them have. These persons, it is maintained, should be "so selected and so treated" as to prepare the way for a later study of social groups.[6]

Many of us will question the soundness of using biographical materials as the basis of our social studies curriculum. Before we try to evaluate this method, however, let us see how and to what extent this method has been used in the past.

Rousseau may have been the first to advocate biographical materials in teaching history to the child from six to twelve. In the early nineteenth century the orientation to historical studies in German schools was usually through the study of specific persons from the past. By the middle of that century this approach was the usual one throughout most of western Europe.[7] Then, in 1841, the historian Carlyle, who had written that "We cannot look however imperfectly upon a great man, without gaining something by him," published his

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[6] Johnson, Henry. *Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools with Applications to Allied Subjects*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1940. p. 130; Kelty, Mary G. *Learning and Teaching History in the Middle Grades*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1936. p. 19.

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 130-32.

Heroes and Hero-Worship in History. Together with Ralph Waldo Emerson's *Representative Men,* that appeared in 1850, this sparked in the the United States a new interest in biography and in the role of individuals in history.[8]

With the turn of the present century, came a marked upswing in the pedagogical interest in biography. In the "Report of the Committee of Seven," published in 1899, the history program for grade four was to be entirely a study of biography. In discussing the specific leaders who were to be studied, from different periods and countries, the report emphasized that:

> These names are suggested, not as a final selection to be rigorously adopted, but as indicating one way of arousing interest and of conveying historical information at the age when ideas of time and place relations are only imperfectly developed, but when interest in individuals is keen and active.[9]

A decade later the influential Committee of Eight asserted that children were more interested in people than in events.[10] This ushered in a period when American teachers in overwhelming numbers and with great enthusiasm accepted the biographical approach to the study of history.

The report of the Committee of Eight influenced curriculum planning during the second decade of this century. After 1920 the emphasis on the biographical approach to the study of history declined. Teachers felt that this approach disregarded such things as large movements, the influence of ideas, and economic controls. Johnson believed that this approach waned in popularity as early as 1915. He pointed out that "The biographical approach in school usually skipped from summit to summit without any reference to the connecting landscape."[11] Writing two decades after Johnson, Kelty expressed the belief that:

> The point of this discussion is *not* that biography has no place in the teaching of history. Its values are recognized by the most exacting critics. The point is that the *biographical method of organization* is not the best method for middle-grade children.[12]

While it is true the biographical approach to the organization of history (or the social studies) materials began to lose ground, perhaps as early as 1915 and certainly within the next decade, this does not mean that there have been no advocates of this approach during the past 40 years. A decade ago, Wesley and Adams argued that:

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[8] Smith, Martha Lois. "The Teaching of Biography in School and College." Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Nashville, Tennessee: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1941. p. 73-74.

[9] McLoughlin, Andrew C. and others. *The Study of History in Schools: Report to the A. H. A. by the Committee of Seven.* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1899. p. 168-69.

[10] Kelty, *op. cit.*, p. 21.

[11] Johnson, *op. cit.*, p. 136-37.

[12] Kelty, *op. cit.*, p. 22, 33.

> A particularly appealing core for organizing materials for elementary pupils is found in *biography*. Almost any aspect of human activity can be organized around a person who has made a major contribution to a particular field. Automobiles and Ford, electricity and Edison, conservation and Theodore Roosevelt, adventure and Daniel Boone, . . . are only . . . examples of scores of possibilities of organizing material around the life of a person. . . . In fact, a succession of biographies could be used as a basis for organizing geography, civic achievements, American history and other large areas of the social studies.[13]

Today writers of biographies for children, and many teachers of the social studies, continue to emphasize the aspects of biographical study that appealed to Rousseau, Carlyle, and the two Committees mentioned above. Genevieve Foster had repeatedly tried to relate a man's life to the events of his time, as, for example, in her *George Washington's World*, published by Scribner's in 1941.[14] Fenwick argues that "Almost invariably, when we think of a period of history in our own time, we recreate the course of events in terms of personal experiences."[15] Black has written,

> Though it [a biography] sets the main character in the center of the stage, it also portrays the life of the world about him, gives the reader a knowledge of historical relationships, increases his information concerning persons and events and shows him their influence upon the world at large.[16]

Nearly half a century ago, Henry Johnson first advanced the argument that it was not satisfactory to group events about men. He recognized the values to be realized through a study of persons, but suggested that it was wiser to group men about events. "Biography can, on the whole," he wrote, "be made more historical by making it more biographical, by grouping men about events . . . and by studying men first of all as men."[17]

Of one thing we may be sure, whether one adopts the biographical approach to history and the social studies or whether he agrees with

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[13] Wesley, Edgar Bruce, and Mary A. Adams. *Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Schools.* Boston: D.C. Heath and Co., 1952. p. 219.

[14] Foster, Genevieve. "Biography and History for Today's World." (Edited by William S. Gray.) *Promoting Growth and Maturity in Interpreting What is Read.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1951. p. 55.

[15] Fenwick, Sara Ennis. "Exploring History with Genevieve Foster." *Elementary English* 31: 315; October 1954.

[16] Black, Harold Garnet. "Biographical Literature." *The Journal of Higher Education* 21: 260; May 1950.

[17] Johnson, *op. cit.*, p. 141.

Johnson that biography should be used, but used to supplement rather than to provide the main framework or core of the curriculum, the teacher of history or the social studies who refrains from using the personal story is overlooking an important factor. For, as Johnson points out,

> Whatever may be thought of this or that specific use of biography or the materials of biography, history for schools, without emphasis upon the personal element, is in a large sense, as Dr. Sparks suggested that it must be for any untrained reader, "an empty stage. However magnificently set, it is lifeless without the players."[18]

The literature of the social studies during the past two or three decades clearly indicates that teachers continue to make use of biographical materials, although few try to use biography as a core around which their curriculum can be organized. Many, accepting the biography as one of several types of historical, sociological, or psychological literature, use it as a means of enriching their instruction. Let us look, therefore, at the values to be derived from the use of biography in the elementary school social studies class.

VALUES OF BIOGRAPHY

During the last two decades many different arguments for the use of biography have been advanced, both by educators and by historians.[19] Turning to this literature we find that the values claimed for such materials may be divided into four main classes: they vitalize and reanimate the study of history; they provide enrichment and depth and thus complement the facts of history; they help to identify and develop democratic values; and they contribute to a better adjustment by the student.

Educators and historians have emphasized that biography can vitalize the study of history by making events and persons real and understandable to the student. The action and story stimulate interest. "It would seem clear," Schwartz tells us, "that the teacher who would . . . recreate the conditions and the struggles . . . must find a place for biography."[20] Carman believes that history loses much of its "magic and meaning" without extensive use of biographical materials.[21]

The young boy pushes up the Missouri River with Francis Park-man or plunges into the mountains with Jedediah Smith. He keeps a lookout for Indians, goes out with the hunters in search of meat, feels the thrill of mounting the final rise in the Continental Divide. In the same manner biography vitalizes history for girls. How many adolescents have soared above the clouds with Amelia Earhart, given performance after performance with Ethel Barrymore, and felt the weariness of the continual round of duties—spinning, weaving, cooking, sewing, washing—that occupied the life of Narcissa Whitman or Mary Richardson Walker.

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[18] *Ibid.*, p. 144.

[19] Johnson discusses nineteenth century arguments for the use of biography, and ways in which it was used; see *Ibid.*, p. 132-33.

[20] Schwarz, John. "The Use of Biography in Teaching the Social Studies." *The Historical Approach to Methods of Teaching the Social Studies.* Fifth Yearbook. National Council for the Social Studies. Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Co., 1935. p. 94.

[21] Carman, Harry J. "The Dictionary of American Biography: An Appreciation." *The Historical Outlook* 31: 211-12; May 1930.

Since we know that little real learning takes place without an interest in and a desire to learn the material being considered, interest is one of the most important values to be obtained from biography.[22]

Biography can also vitalize history through simplifying major movements by allowing teacher and students to concentrate on a single person or a small group of people. Albjerg is thinking of this when he writes "Biography also simplifies history by focusing movements in the struggle of one man."[23] For example, Jamestown can become understandable to elementary school children through the study of John Smith and Pocahontas.

A second value of biography is seen in the manner in which it can enrich the content of history courses and make the materials of history more complete. We are told that biographical material complements history and furnishes specific instances that can be used to exemplify general trends and movements. An interest in the persons of history may provide an easy transition to an interest in more impersonal aspects of history. They are also useful in expanding students' understanding of the world and their appreciation of American culture as a whole.

Dumas Malone, biographer and historian, believes that biography is an excellent medium for enriching the heritage of the past.[24] Albjerg points out that "Biography, therefore, constitutes an important part of history. In fact history without biography would be something like rest without relaxation, food without flavor, and almost like romance without love."[25]

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[22] See Brown, Ralph Adams, unpublished manuscript titled "Biography Vitalizes Elementary School Social Studies." Valuable articles dealing with this aspect of the value of biographical materials are: Heriot, Grace Miller. "Children and Biography." *Elementary English* 25: 98-102, February 1948; McCrea, Mary. "Using Biography to Stimulate Reading." *The Instructor* 62:89+, November 1957; Bennett, Sigrid. "Use Biography to Help You Teach." *The Grade Teacher* 74: 69-70, 72, 74, 80, November 1956; Johnston, James C. *Biography: The Literature of Personality*. New York: Century, 1927; Crane, Katherine Elizabeth. "Teaching American Biography." *Social Education* 1: 421-23, September 1937; Dargan, Marion. "The Biographical Approach in American History." *The Journal of Higher Education* 20: 137-39, March 1949; McConnell, Gaither. "Modern Biographies for Children." *Elementary English* 30: 286-89, May 1953; Foster, *op. cit.*, p. 53-57.

[23] Albjerg, Victor L. "History Through Biographical Lenses." *The Social Studies* 38: 245; October 1947.

[24] Malone, Dumas. "Biography and History." (Edited by Joseph R. Strayer.) *The Interpretation of History*, Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1943. p. 118-48.

Reading specialists suggest that a frequent reason for failure to read and understand social studies materials lies in the complexity and difficulty of the concepts involved. They point out that even well-controlled materials can be too difficult because "so many new concepts are introduced per page."[26] Bennett suggests that "Biographies supply the teacher with one very versatile type of material . . . to provide children with ways to expand and fulfill the concepts."[27]

Biography complements the regular history textbook materials in many ways. It aids in the development of a critical attitude by providing materials with which a teacher can lead his students into a discussion and analysis of points of controversy. Dargan suggests that "If one wishes to take the most practical method of developing the historical judgment and critical ability of his students, he will do well to start with biography rather than with history."[28]

It has been mentioned that biography can simplify major movements by focusing on the life of a single individual, or a group of individuals. The study of human beings as individuals also furnishes specific instances that can be used to exemplify general trends or activities. Few boys and girls in the middle grades are able to read statistics showing the growth of large business, capital investment, new industry in the decades after the Civil War, and to conclude from that data that the emphasis in American life during these years was largely economic. A teacher can generalize about the urge for wealth or the imaginative optimism of business leaders; few youngsters will understand or care. Yet a study of the lives of such men as Carnegie, Rockefeller, Harriman, Gould, Huntington, Drew, Fisk, or several dozen others will give them a feel for the tempo of the time and a basis for building more genuine understanding when they reach junior and senior high school.

We have already noted the high interest-producing quality of biographical materials. Biography also complements historical materials by linking events and conditions of great interest and those of little or no interest to the average student. The impersonal aspects of history are frequently difficult to "get across" to young boys and girls. "Taxation without Representation" means little to a fifth grader studying American history for the first time. In contrast the lives of lawyer John Adams, merchant John Hancock, and agitator Sam Adams are filled with drama, excitement, and color.

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[25] Albjerg, *op. cit.*, p. 245.

[26] Bennett, *op. cit.*, p. 70.

[27] *Ibid.*

[28] Dargan, *op. cit.*, p. 138.

Biographical materials can be used to expand student understanding of the world. At a time when the speed of contraction of the physical world seems only matched by the expansion of ignorance and suspicion and misunderstanding, any study that can increase understanding and appreciation of the forces and factors that shape our culture would seem to be of primary importance. Thus few children are interested in the recent developments in areas such as India, Africa, or China. Yet familiarity with the lives of individuals such as Gandhi or Nehru arouses interest in and understanding of their country and times.

A third value of biography is to help students to identify and develop within their own value-scale, the values of democracy. The continuance of democracy is predicated upon the ability and willingness of its people to accept their responsibilities to participate in its functions. Thus it would seem logical that an understanding of the guiding principles and beliefs of our democratic leaders must facilitate an understanding of the values of our society. Learning to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of individuals who have played roles of leadership in the past are of value in assessing current leadership. This, of course, is predicated upon the assumption that the use of biographical materials would involve critical appraisal and discussion, and not just story-tellling.

Moffatt and Craf suggest that biography is an excellent medium for teaching democracy.[29] Malone finds in biography a source of "clues to the unsolved mystery of leadership."[30] "Nothing that is human," he reminds us, "is foreign to its province." Since democracy's leaders are chosen by the people, Dargan believes that "courses in biography [and the same values, if he is right, would follow the inclusion of more biographical materials into history courses] can result in an improvement of the ability to evaluate leadership potential." Biography, he holds, can thus further the cause of good government.[31] At another time Professor Dargan remarks,

> In a democratic society the men and women who occupy key positions are selected by the people. Choosing the best individuals for places of

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[29] Moffatt, Maurice P., and John R. Craf. "Teaching Democracy Through Personalities." *The Social Studies* 35: 211-13; May 1944.

[30] Malone, *op. cit.*, p. 147-48.

[31] Dargan, Marion. "The Biographical Approach to History." Address delivered before the American Historical Association, Cleveland, December 1947; loaned to the present writer in manuscript; unpaged.

> trust is one of our most important responsibilities. If handled properly, the biography course may equip future citizens to evaluate current leaders more critically and see them in a truer perspective.[32]

The final value of biography to the social studies teacher lies in its tremendous, although as yet largely unexplored, power to enrich personality and bring about better adjustment. There has been little research in this area, and that research that has been completed has been subject to conflicting interpretations.[33] The fact that children and young adolescents need to find people whom they can respect and admire, and that they are in a period of value formation and value testing, seems to be unchallenged.

During the pre-teens and early teens, young people seem for a while to recapture that fantasy-life which is so evident in pre-school youngsters of three-and-a-half to five years of age. At this older period, however, they turn more readily toward actual events and real people. They see themselves performing on the athletic field, being elected to positions of honor, walking off with a wonderful job, or falling in love as it is done in the movies. Compared with others, their lives seem dull and commonplace. They are paused on the threshold of life, at a most impressionable period, avidly watching and reacting to the experiences of others. During this impressionistic period good biography can do much to help young people build up values and goals and understanding through an introduction to real people of the past or present.

It is throughout the elementary school period that children reach out for wider experiences. Their need to look up to some individual as a hero or heroine is shown in their adulation of a parent, older brother, a child a grade ahead, or a totally unknown personality of stage or screen. How many scrapbooks are filled with pictures of actors and actresses or baseball stars; how many young people try to dress, talk, and otherwise pattern themselves after their hero. Young people seek to identify themselves with some person or persons who seem greater than they—more self-confident, more powerful, wiser and freer to carry out their destiny than is the child or the adolescent. Biography offers a wealth of great men and women who could well replace the shallow, fleeting heroes often emulated by young people. Familiarity with their struggles and problems and with their successes would introduce a leaven of stability and reality into the young person's questioning and insecurity.

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[32] Dargan, *op. cit.*, p. 139.

[33] See Brown, Ralph Adams, and Marian R. Brown. "Biography and Personality Development," unpublished manuscript. For some of the literature bearing on this point, see: Malone, *op cit.*, p. 119-48; Partin, Robert, "Biography as an Instrument of Moral Instruction." *American Quarterly* 8: 303-15, Winter 1956; Chaffee, Everett. "Adolescent Needs and the Social Studies." *Social Education* 3: 543-46, November 1939; Berg, Jan Hendrick van den. *The Changing Nature of Man*. New York: W. W. Norton and Co., 1961. p. 252; Weingarten, Samuel. "Biography and Education for Adjustment." *Junior College Journal* 18: 135-44, November 1947; Lodge, Helen C. "The Influence of the Study of Biography on the Moral Ideology of the Adolescent at the Eighth Grade Level." *Journal of Educational Research* 1: 241-55, December 1956; Banks, Tressa, and others. "We Tested Some Beliefs About the Biographical Method." *The School Review* 59:157-63, March 1951; Bennett, *op. cit.*, p. 69-70, 72, 74, 80.

Thus we see that we can use biography to improve the teaching of the social studies because it vitalizes history through adding interest, vitality, reality, and simplification of forces and movements; we use it to enrich and make more complete the materials of history because it complements history, furnishes specific instances that can be used to exemplify general trends or activities, provides a possible transition of interest from the personal to the more impersonal aspects of history, and can be used to expand students' understanding of the world. Through the use of biographical materials we can also help our students to identify and develop democratic values. Finally, biography contributes to the adjustment and personality development of the student. Let us now look at the biographical materials available to the teacher of the social studies in the elementary school.

BIOGRAPHICAL MATERIALS

There is no scarcity of materials for teachers who wish to incorporate the study of biography into their elementary school social studies program. Anderson notes five types of biographical literature: "straight" biography, biographical fiction, drama, poetry and biography in textbooks.[34] Some teachers would not think of all of those as typical biographical literature. Yet even if we accept only the first two of Miss Anderson's "areas," there will be no difficulty in finding material. It may prove valuable to investigate some other sources or types of biographical materials.

Biography for the very young child may be largely a matter of tradition and folk tale, of the celebration of birthdays, and the recognition of holidays. There are many fictionalized biographies that are useful in the second and third grades, where children are almost always interested in "real people." Superior readers in the second and third grades, average readers in the fourth and fifth grades, will begin reading the so-called junior biographies.[35] Encyclopedias and reference books are useful tools for the teacher in the middle grades who wishes to introduce his students to the lives of people who figure prominently in the social studies subject matter. Boys and girls in the middle grades should be familiar with the *Dictionary of American Biography*, the magazine *Current Biography*, and with how to find information about people in various encyclopedias and reference works.[36]

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[34] Anderson, Ruth O. M. "Biography in the High School." *Social Education* 13: 74-75; February 1949.

[35] See Brown, Ralph Adams, unpublished manuscript titled "Real People Can

There are some biographies, and there need to be many more, that belong part-way between the junior and the adult life. These might be called intermediate biographies. Such volumes as the *They Made America* series[37] belong in this group. These books contain adult interpretation and an examination of motives; they analyze weaknesses and strengths and discuss relationships, in a manner seldom attempted in the junior biography that is aimed at the 10-14 year-old group. At the same time they omit the economic and political detail expected in a serious adult life. Such books are invaluable for the better students in the last years of elementary school.

The most advanced type of biography that can be used in the elementary school is of course the adult life. Few boys and girls in the elementary grades will read the more serious and complete of these adult lives, but these books do have a potential use that is not without significance. Suppose, for example, that a fifth grade class is discussing Abraham Lincoln and the Lincoln-Douglas debates. Few students of this age would read Carl Sandburg's six volumes on our sixteenth president. Yet there are many who would enjoy, and profit from, turning to the two volumes that deal with the *Prairie Years* and reading the description of any one of the famous debates. Or, and this is a worthwhile activity, a student or a group of them might be referred to a particular page or pages in Sandburg and told to report back to the class on a particular fact or incident.

Again, many adult biographies that are too detailed and too ma-

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Live in Stories; Biography in the Lower Grades." For other sources of information, see: Robinson, Ruth and others. "Holiday Observances for Younger Children; Social Growth Through Holiday Units." *Social Education of Young Children: Kindergarten-Primary Grades.* Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, a department of the National Education Association, 1952. p. 60-67; Sonneborn, Ruth A. "These Were Their Lives." *Saturday Review* 44: 74-75, January 21, 1961; McConnell, Gaither. "Criteria for Juvenile Biographies." *Elementary English* 33: 231-35, April 1956; Tingley, Leona. "World-Minded Eight Year Olds." *Social Education of Young Children: Kindergarten-Primary Grades.* Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, a department of the National Education Association, 1950. p. 68-72.

[36] Charles Scribner's Sons is now preparing a one-volume edition of the *Dictionary of American Biography*. This will be published in 1962 or 1963 and should prove a useful tool for all social studies teachers.

[37] Published by the McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York 36.

ture to interest many pre-adolescents might be useful in terms of a particular description. This might be a word-picture of a person or place, or it might be the reproduction of a famous portrait not otherwise available to a class. Alert fifth and sixth graders who are often referred to adult books in some such way will be more ready to start reading such books when they reach high school and college.

As a final type of biographical material available to the social studies teacher in the elementary grades, this writer would recommend research in local biographical data. The first settler in the town, the first clergyman, the first man to have an automobile agency, the first woman to run for political office in the town, city or county, the first boy to go away to college or to become a professional athlete, the first local resident to pay the supreme sacrifice in any one of our wars—these are but a few of the thousands of local people who could become persons instead of names, as a result of research into local sources, and who thus might enrich the teaching of the social studies and increase the real understanding gained by boys and girls.[38]

METHODS

Assuming that there are abundant materials of various types and kinds, and that the values to be gained from the use of such materials are very real, how shall the teacher of social studies in the elementary grades make use of these materials? This writer believes that there is a progression of skill and understanding involved in the use of biographical materials, and that the teacher who will introduce her students to biography step-by-step, from the more simple to the more difficult use, will have better results than will the teacher who makes use of biographical data without regard to the difficulty of various approaches. The following 10 steps are proposed:

1. Listening during the "story hour"
2. Reading stories aloud as the basis for brief reports or "tell backs"
3. Having children read stories as the basis for oral reports
4. Using reference works as the basis for oral and written reports
5. Assigning a single incident from a single book
6. Assigning a single incident from several books
7. Reporting on a biography
8. Using two or more biographies in an oral or written report
9. Making an analysis of personality—the "why" and the "how"
10. Biographical research.[39]

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[38] See Brown, Ralph Adams. "The Local Scene in American History Teaching." Five articles published in *Social Education* 16: 19-21, 65-67, 115-17, 150-52, and 109-11, January to May 1952.

[39] See Brown, Ralph Adams. "Using Biography in the Elementary School." *Social Education* 25: 289-90; October 1961.

If we assume that there are values to be realized through the use of biography by elementary school social studies teachers, and that both methods and materials are readily available, then the only question remaining is: How do we train teachers to use biography at this level? In this respect there are two major problems: teacher attitude and teacher knowledge.

TEACHER PREPARATION

Social studies teachers need to accept the importance of character, leadership, dependability and judgment. They may not accept Carlyle's Great Man theory of history, but they certainly need to believe that the role of human beings is of importance in the development of both past and present. They need to believe that it makes a difference whether leaders are men and women of integrity and judgment and responsibility.

Social studies teachers should be interested in the study of personality and in the role of personalities in history. The teacher who is unconcerned about human beings, their differences, their mistakes, their strengths, their successes will not be likely to place much emphasis upon biography in his social studies classes. Even such an interest in personality is not enough. The interest must be translated into an interest in biographical literature. The teacher who seldom reads a biography will make neither frequent nor effective use of personality in his classes.

Assuming the neecessary interest, the social studies teacher must also possess certain knowledge. He must (1) have knowledge of the development of children and of their need for identification with strong personalities from the past as well as the present, (2) he must be acquainted with the sources of information about biographies, for even the most avid reader cannot keep up with all of the new biographies that are published each year, (3) he must have firsthand knowledge of many sources of information and he must keep track of the old as well as become acquainted with the new, and (4) he must have some competence in terms of a knowledge of the lives of men and women most closely connected with the content of the courses he teaches.

Teachers in the elementary school grades who deal with social studies material should become aware of the great values to be realized from introducing the personal element into their course work.

CHAPTER VIII

Planning for Instruction

Section One: The Philosopher-Teacher

Ralph C. Preston

A TEACHER works toward goals only if he is disposed to think in terms of goals. A person who thinks in terms of goals is a philosopher. Therefore, a goal-conscious teacher is a philosopher.

This syllogism forms the theme of this section of the present chapter. The section will develop the proposition that purposeful teaching requires that the individual teacher take personal responsibility for directing his teaching toward worthwhile objectives and that he become something of a philosopher. In using the word "philosopher," however, the writer does not mean to imply that each teacher should develop his own philosophy of education. Such a practice would lead to chaos.[1] The philosopher-teacher referred to here is simply a teacher versed in, and devoted to those beliefs, values, and principles of conduct which reflect society's purposes.

The section will raise serious doubts concerning the validity of the traditional effort of schools to bring about more purposeful teaching through relying upon lists of objectives. While the listing of objectives is an excellent experience for those engaged in the work, and stimulating to those few who seriously consult the lists, it has not had an important impact upon teaching in general.

Social studies teaching has made greater strides in its methodology than in its purposefulness. The progress in methods may be due in part to the stress upon the "artist-teacher"—the teacher who is able to make learning attractive and whose management of children is smooth and efficient. The artist-teacher, while a worthy ideal, is an incomplete one. Finesse of method is of no value if the teacher's goals are

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[1] This point is trenchantly developed by Myron Lieberman in his *The Future of Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960. p. 27-31.

This section was reviewed by Marcus A. Foster, Principal, Dunbar Public School, Philadelphia; Viola B. Hilbert, Principal, Aronomink Public School, Drexel Hill, Pennsylvania; Myrtle G. McCallin, Director, School Affiliation Service, American Friends Service Committee, Philadelphia; and Alice C. Spottwood, Teacher, Dunbar Public School, Philadelphia.

unclear or ignoble. Teachers who have a clear sense of direction as well as a grasp of how-to-do-it are more than artist-teachers; they are also philsopher-teachers.

The Insufficiency of Statements of Goals

Let us survey very candidly and critically the first stage of the standard American practice of curriculum revision. It consists of defining objectives. The thinking behind this approach seems logical enough. Not until we know why we are teaching (so runs the reasoning) can we select detailed content or devise methods to reach reasonable goals. The reasoning is plausible—but the practice itself has proved futile and ineffective. Why has this been the case? An examination of some of the reasons will point up the need for self-generating philosopher-teachers.

1. If goals are to direct instruction they must be creatively formulated. They are not transferrable from one person to another. Hence, a ready-made list of goals has but limited meaning to those teachers on a faculty (usually a majority) who have not helped in their formulation. Although an entire faculty might participate in formulating goals, this is not usually feasible. The full import of a list of goals is known only to those on the committee who thought through goals together, who argued about them, and who struggled for the best language in which to express them. The unfamiliarity of the majority of the faculty with the full meaning of the goals can be reduced, to be sure, by having meetings of the entire faculty devoted to discussing them. However, seldom is discussion of a ready-made list of goals a sufficiently creative experience to arouse the fire and to cause the deep probing without which goals become more the objects of lip service to a teacher than the mainsprings of his practice.

2. Lists of goals throw some teachers on the defensive. These teachers are probably as anxious to improve their teaching as are others, but involving them prematurely in the study of goals only frightens them and confirms them in their staid habits. They tend to rationalize their practices to conform to the statement of goals. This is done because teachers tend to believe strongly in what they are teaching and are reluctant to change. Statements of goals, handed to teachers by administrators or supervisors, on the other hand, seem strange and cold to them. The type of teacher now under scrutiny usually respects a statement of goals, but he respects his own experience and practice more—because he understands them better. It is not difficult for him to reconcile his practice with the goals when called upon to do so.

Let us see how this works. A certain school has a list of objectives based upon the excellent statement of goals formulated by the Committee on Concepts and Values of the National Council for the Social Studies.[8] It uses the Committee's goals which were set in terms of fourteen themes to provide standards by which content should be selected and justified. The school's first objective (paralleling the Committee's first theme, "The Intelligent Uses of the Forces of Nature") reads, "Understanding of how man has made, and continues to make, use of the forces of nature." Many teachers, instead of using this objective and its subsidiary generalizations to evaluate present content with a view to sharpening and improving it, look to see how it justifies what they are currently teaching. One teacher recalls that, in a study of Columbus, he always brings out Columbus' use of wind power. "This illustrates how man makes use of nature," he says with satisfaction. "Now let's see what the second objective is about!" At many a curriculum workshop the writer has conferred with able and conscientious teachers who have mused to themselves and rationalized their present practices in just such a fashion. For certain able and promising teachers, this is probably a natural and inevitable reaction.

3. Lists of goals have regrettably been rejected by some teachers because they have not helped at the points where they have felt the greatest need for assistance. Many teachers tend to be more concerned with questions of method than with questions of direction. One supervisor, visiting teachers only at their request, analyzed the nature of almost 500 consecutive requests for help which he received.[9] Heading the requests were those dealing with details of unit procedure. Next in frequency were requests for him to observe some aspect of their teaching. Then came questions relating to details of content. This is a common and perfectly understandable situation. It explains part of the failure for discussion of goals with faculties to bite deeply or to significantly influence teaching. Before a teacher feels secure in the details of his daily work, he cannot throw himself wholeheartedly into a discussion of theoretical considerations and benefit greatly therefrom. A sailor cannot indulge in the luxury of reading about principles of navigation when his ship is in danger of sinking. Teachers have told the writer that highminded and well-intentioned

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[8] "A Guide to Content in the Social Studies." Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1958. Summarized by S. P. McCutcheon (Committee Chairman), "Concepts and Values as the Basis for Content." *Social Education* 22:73, 80; February 1958. Also summarized in *The National Elementary Principal* 37:21-24; May 1958.

[9] Foster, Marcus A. "Teacher's Questions about Social Studies and Their Implications for Supervision." Unpublished study, University of Pennsylvania.

supervisors have expected them to do something analogous to that! Until teachers feel on the road to mastering the tasks at hand—discipline, grouping, classroom routine, organization of content, and the like—the subject of goals seems almost an irrelevancy.

4. By beginning with goals and postponing until later considerations of more "practical" matters, we court the sterility that accompanies every separation of theory and practice. We are in the habit of thinking that there are two ways of looking at a thing: the theoretical way and the practical way. We are familiar with educators who are chiefly interested in theory, who keep their eyes steadily on the horizon. Sometimes they refer sardonically to the practical-minded as technicians. We are also familiar with that larger group of educators who are chiefly interested in classroom practice. They often regard the theoreticians as well-meaning but quite visionary and unrealistic. What Fromm calls "the harmful separation of theoretical and practical knowledge"[4] is by no means confined to education. It is also pronounced in medicine, law, politics, and other fields. In any case, it has had a hampering effect upon progress in education and not least upon progress in social studies education. The desideratum is the teacher who is equally at home in the theory of teaching and in the practice of teaching whose theory and practice are interwoven. As Feis neatly expresses it in another connection, "when theory tyrannizes over facts, grief is apt to follow; but when facts of the moment tyrannize over theory, the chance of improvement is lost."[5] This returns us again to the proposition that social studies teaching will have a more profound effect as teachers become philosophers as well as practitioners.

5. Some teachers have an intuitive sense of proper goals and resent the inclination of administrators and curriculum consultants to belabor them. They feel with Conant that:

> When someone writes or says that what we need today in the United States is to decide first what we mean by the word "education," a sense of distasteful weariness overtakes me. I feel as though I were starting to see a badly scratched film of a poor movie for the second or third time. In such a mood, I am ready to define education as what goes on in the schools and colleges, and I am more inclined to examine the past and present practices of teachers than to attempt to deduce pedagogical precepts from a set of premises.[6]

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[4] Fromm, Erich. *The Sane Society*. New York: Rinehart and Co., 1955. p. 345.

[5] Feis, Herbert. *Between War and Peace*. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1960. p. 73.

[6] Conant, James B. *The Child, the Parent, and the State*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1959. p. 1-2.

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Defining goals can be just as tiresome and futile as defining education. Obsession with "spelling out goals" is sometimes a symptom of pedantry, sometimes of mediocrity. Fromm points out that today we profess the same values that have been preached for a thousand years. "We, today, who have access to all these ideas," he writes, "who are still the immediate heirs to the great humanistic teachings, we are not in need of new knowledge of how to live sanely—but in bitter need of taking seriously what we believe, what we preach and teach. The revolution of our hearts does not require new wisdom—but new seriousness and dedication."[7] An increasing number of teachers, too, are keenly aware of the enduring human values and goals. They react negatively to suggestions from principals or supervisors that these goals be reviewed, refined, revised, restated. They feel strongly that their energy and time might better be directed to the study of ways and means whereby the goals will infiltrate their day-by-day teaching.

How Goal-Consciousness Develops

How are goals formulated in life? How does the college student, for example, determine his goals for college? How does the young person entering upon his career determine his career goals? If we understand the process whereby life goals are established we may find clues for the development of goal-conscious teaching.

Few persons are able to formulate their goals at the outset of any important experience—college, marriage, business, teaching, or any other career. There is actual danger in the premature structuring of goals. To be sure, we sometimes hear of the head of a corporation who as office boy at age fifteen decided that he would some day be president of the firm; or of a beginning teacher who decides that by forty he will be a superintendent of schools and who fulfills his ambition. Fixing one's eye unswervingly upon a goal in this manner is rare and is not even necessarily healthy.[8] Most individuals are too normal and flexible to harbor such singleminded and self-limiting goals.

The typical young person has short-range or vague goals when he starts out. At the outset he may simply want to earn his weekly salary; or he may want to convince his employer that after the trial period for which he has been employed he should hire him on a permanent basis. When such transitory and short-viewed goals near fulfillment, they become broadened. The young person now may wish to provide the best possible service to his customers. He may wish to increase the security of his family. The beginning teacher's first objective may be to be liked by his pupils; soon he may add to that an aim to keep them in order. The desire to have them become informed and responsible citizens may be a theoretical and visionary goal during the first year of teaching, but it becomes sharpened and more central as he continues teaching and becomes a more mature person.

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[7] Fromm, *op. cit.*, p. 344.

[8] Saul, Leon J. *The Hostile Mind*. New York: Random House, 1956. p. 171-72.

If this analysis of the development of goals is correct, then the usual "take the bull by the horns" approach to curriculum revision and teacher education is questionable. Teachers' first goals are probably limited and nebulous. Efforts to force teachers' growth through precipitating them prematurely in goal-formulating activities will be largely wasted and will be destructive in that some promising teachers will form a hearty dislike for supervisors, faculty meetings, and perhaps even teaching. The wisest course is to have faith that goals will broaden and deepen with experience and maturing.

A New Approach to Goals

Teachers who wish to improve their sense of direction and supervisors who wish to have teachers become more goal-conscious can profitably begin by focusing upon what the teacher is currently doing. This was the basis of the curriculum improvement program in Maine undertaken in the 1940's by William H. Burton.

Burton abandoned the dramatic, radical type of curriculum revision which had characterized the work of so many states in the 1930's and which attracted so much national attention. His principles were simple. First, the work of the classroom teacher was taken as the starting point. Aid was given to the teacher in whatever he was currently doing. Second, the program was voluntary. Teachers were not even strongly urged to participate. Third, local conferences and workshops were arranged as the need arose. Informal reports to the writer indicated that many teachers through this program took significant strides toward becoming philosopher-teachers.

A second example is furnished by the approach of the late C. Leslie Cushman during the late 1940's and early 1950's in Philadelphia. The social studies curriculum was revised over a five-year period. The first year was devoted to stimulating teachers to improve their teaching, or to inaugurate teaching, about the city or about communities within the city. During the second year emphasis was laid upon the improvement of unit teaching in general. The third year was devoted to defining scope, the fourth year to sequence, and not until the final and fifth year were objectives developed. The writer can testify from firsthand acquaintance with the program that this program, too, promoted among those directly involved the development of philosopher-teachers.

TEACHING GOALS AND LEARNING GOALS

A hasty reader may at this point conclude that the writer does not believe that teachers need bother with goals. Nothing could be farther from the truth. When teaching children, it is imperative, if we wish success, to establish learning goals for each unit, each division of a unit, and each day's lesson. Furthermore, the goals of learning should be made as explicit and attractive to the children as possible. Each learning activity should be systematically planned so that children will easily and naturally acquire a sense of direction.

The reader may ask: "How can this be done if the teacher has not thought through the larger teaching goals?" Paradoxical though it may appear, it is entirely possible—and extremely common. Consider the teacher who establishes as a learning goal for his class that Columbus utilized certain forces and phenomena of nature in his use of sailing vessels, compass, and astrolabe. He has not yet thought much about many other implications of man's use of nature; *e.g.*, that nature has conditioned where and how men live, that man has not controlled all phases of the physical environment, that man's knowledge of nature has freed him from many superstitions, and other of the 38 implications brought out by the aforementioned report of the Committee on Concepts and Values. Nevertheless, the teacher grows toward the broader understanding, however slowly, in proportion to the degree that he works intelligently and conscientiously at his daily teaching chores. Indeed, this is how teacher growth took place over the centuries before education became professionalized. Today's principals and supervisors may either help or hinder teacher growth. They help to the extent that they respect the teacher, assist him when he asks for assistance, and gently challenge him when he needs stimulation.

Section Two: Designs for Social Studies Resource Units

Wilhelmina Hill

The design for social studies resource units has a direct relation to the kind of teaching and learning that will result. If a problem solving approach and action experiences are desired, the unit design will be shaped accordingly. If subject matter content and passive study activ-

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This section was reviewed by Phillip Bacon, O. L. Davis, Jr., Helen K. Mackintosh, and John D. McAulay.

ities are to be emphasized, the design will tend to be more formal and likely to lean heavily on subject matter outlines.

This discussion of units is intended to deal mainly with design and format. Other sections of the Yearbook are concerned with matters of content.

INGREDIENTS OF UNIT PLANS

After studying over 400 social studies resource units which were published during the last 10 years,[9] it was found that most unit plans contain the same basic ingredients in one form or another. In general, these ingredients are:

Introduction or overview
Objectives for the unit
Content (problems, concepts, or subject matter)
Activities
Evaluation
Materials

Occasionally one of the above ingredients was lacking in the units studied, namely evaluation. It is recommended that provisions for evaluation be included in every social studies resource unit.

VARYING PATTERNS

There is a great variation in the patterns or format of the social studies units throughout the country. A major difference has to do with whether single or multiple columns are used. Certainly the single column format is most readable. With this design the major elements or ingredients become the center headings and the statements or lists of objectives, content, activities, evaluation, and materials are developed as subtopics or subordinate items. An illustration of this type of design is the following outline of major unit topics from a unit on *Shelter*.[10]

I. Topic
II. Specific Objectives
III. Content
IV. Suggested Activities
    A. Approach Activities
    B. Developmental Activities
    C. Culminating Activities
V. Evaluation
VI. Instructional Materials and Resources

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[9] Hill, Wilhelmina, editor. *Selected Resource Units: Elementary Social Studies, Kindergarten-Grade Six.* Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, a department of the National Education Association, 1961. 96 p.

[10] Indianapolis Public Schools. "Shelter." *Social Studies.* Curriculum Bulletin Number One. Indianapolis, Indiana, September 1952. p. 108-13.

A. Community Resources
B. Bibliography
C. Audio-Visual Materials

Another outline of this type of design is used in a unit on *How We Get Foods.*[11]

Purpose
Suggested Approaches
Scope
Possible Activities
Usable Materials

A number of published or mimeographed units that were analyzed have a multiple column format, varying from two to four columns. While this type of design has no doubt been developed to help the teacher, still its over-all effectiveness and efficiency would seem somewhat doubtful. Some of the observations that would support this conclusion:

1. Where there are separate columns for "Content" and for "Understandings" or "Concepts," there is almost complete repetition. The same things are merely stated in different ways.
2. In most of the units where multiple columns are used, the content or concepts are listed in one or more columns. Then for each item in the content column, one or two activities are listed in the "Activities" column. Actually this seems to be one of the major weaknesses in the multiple column design, because each concept or content item can readily be developed through a number of the listed activities, rather than the one or two placed opposite in the "Activities" column. Likewise, any one of the activities may contribute to several content items or concepts, instead of the one beside which it is placed in column form.

   In unit teaching, relationships are important. Activities and understandings are interrelated and interlocking, rather than singled out for separate treatment. A really meaningful activity usually contributes to the development of more than one concept; and a concept is often developed by more than one activity. On the whole, it is urged that unit understandings and activities not be planned in piecemeal segments but in an integrated manner.
3. In most instances of multiple column format there is a great deal of unused space, which increases the difficulty of publishing and of reading the material.
4. Where there is a column on "Materials," only one or two volumes and page references are usually given for each item. Actually in unit teaching a good many volumes are usually available, and as many are used as the research activities of pupils and teachers make possible. Through such research activities, pupils grow in the ability to locate information in a number of resources and to use the table of contents and index. Such bibliographies for wide reading usually appear at or near the close

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[11] Grosse Pointe Public School System. "How We Get Foods." *Units of Work in the Core Curriculum Program, Grade III.* Grosse Pointe, Michigan, 1958.

of a unit plan, although in some, specific references are integrated in the plan at the point where they are to be used.

BACKGROUND RESOURCE MATERIAL

The amount of background resource material included in social studies units varies according to the way a unit is published and the nature of its subject matter. Separately published units tend to include a good deal of background material. Those published in courses of study which include several units in one volume seldom include a quantity of resource information.

Units dealing with newly introduced subject matter, or subjects in which there has been considerable change, often include and should include a substantial amount of background resource material. Illustrations of such units which have been studied recently are about the USSR, Hawaii, Alaska, modern Japan, and Latin America in an air age. There is much need for new and accurate resource materials for units about the newly independent nations of Africa and Asia. In general it may be said that background resource materials are very helpful in a resource unit, but especially so if the subject is one about which it is difficult to secure adequate, accurate, and up-to-date information. Such materials may be presented in the unit as "Background Information," or some similar heading, when space permits.

NATURE OF OBJECTIVES

Most unit plans include statements of a few social studies objectives which are most appropriate for the particular unit and the age group involved. Usually these lists of objectives are from two to five in length. It is not necessary or desirable to list *all* of the objectives of social studies instruction for each separate unit, only those to be particularly emphasized.

A promising type of objective which is beginning to appear in both unit plans and courses of study consists of *action objectives.* In such statements of objectives, not only are things to learn indicated, but things to do. Here learning is carried over into action, into living and behavior. Examples are the following objectives for the individual, selected from the social studies curriculum guide of the Fairfax County Schools in Virginia:[12]

1. He understands how people govern themselves at all levels as he becomes a responsible and contributing participant.
2. He recognizes the interdependence of man and cooperates toward survival and progress.

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[12] Fairfax County Schools. *Teaching Social Studies.* Fairfax, Virginia, 1960. p. 4.

3. He recognizes and accepts his responsibility in the conservation and use of human and natural resources.

PRESENTATION OF CONTENT

Most of the newer social studies units are problem based. The content is presented in the form of problems or questions for developing the unit. Such lists of problems usually relate to children's own problems, real problems of society, and problems of finding out about the world environment. They lead to problem solving activities as the unit is developed with children. While suggested problems are usually included in a resource unit, many teachers will develop new lists of problems with the children during the pupil-teacher planning stages of the unit in action.

Sometimes subject matter is presented through outlines in certain unit plans. While this form or design of designating subject matter may sometimes be effective in units where a considerable body of subject matter is involved, it seldom carries the challenge of the problem approach.

Occasionally the content section of a unit plan follows a textbook rather closely. Sometimes page references to this textbook appear as part of the indicated content. Modern curriculum practice and theory, as far as social studies programs in elementary schools are concerned, does not tend to "follow" textbooks. Social studies units are or should be planned independently of textbooks. Then a wide variety of textbook and other instructional materials are listed for use in developing the unit. Well-organized units often have such lists of materials and sources of materials toward the conclusion of the plan.

KINDS OF ACTIVITIES

Most resource units have many and varied suggestions of activities for developing the unit. Some provide a fine balance of activities in their plan, which often includes oral, written, art, dramatic, music, rhythmic, construction, reading, and research types of pupil experiences. Others may suggest mainly verbalized activities or seatwork with little opportunity for moving about and engaging in more active or creative types of activities. Outdoor activities should not be overlooked. Direct learning experiences in which the pupils solve real problems and/or have direct contact with those aspects of their world which they are studying should not be overlooked. A primary effort should be made to provide opportunities for children to actively test their thoughts and ideas.

By and large, those who plan units should work toward a balance of activities in any given unit. Those activities should be suggested which are best suited to the attainment of the objectives for the unit. More activities should be included than any one group of children is likely to use. From the activities suggested, those most appropriate may be selected and teacher and pupils add others through pupil-teacher planning.

In some unit plans the activities are presented in a single list with approach, initiating, or orientation activities first, followed by informational, then expressional activities. Every good unit plan contains evaluational activities throughout and toward the close of a unit. It is not necessary to have a "big" activity at the close of a unit, but most units provide for this as a means of summarizing, evaluating, sharing, and bringing to an orderly close a unit experience. Usually such activities are labeled culminating activities. A refreshing change from this somewhat pedagogical term is the terminology used in the new East Baton Rouge Social Studies Units,[13] "concluding activities." These same units also include suggestions for "continuing activities" which seems an excellent idea, so that children would be encouraged to keep up an interest and possibly activities related to a unit after it has been completed at school.

Where a good many activities are suggested for a given unit, they may be organized under sub-headings, such as: Exploratory, Developmental, Concluding, Evaluational, Continuing; or, Approach, Informational, Expressional, Evaluational, and Culminating are interchangeable terms with the preceding progression. In some units, evaluation is handled as a separate section apart from the suggested activities. The main concern is that provision for evaluation appear somewhere in each unit. Too often it is missing and forgotten.

PROVISIONS FOR EVALUATION

A good resource unit indicates methods for evaluating the outcomes in terms of the objectives. Such evaluation is continuous and not left entirely for the closing days of the unit. Variety and even creativity characterize some of the evaluation activities found in social studies units. Exhibits of accomplishments, evaluation games, summaries and reports of what has been learned, dramatic presentations of unit outcomes, and different kinds of tests and checklists prepared by teachers and/or pupils are some of the evaluative provisions found in resource units.

These means of evaluation should include ways of evaluating changes in pupil behavior, adjustment, and attitudes, as well as knowledge of subject matter, understandings, and skills. Through direct observation, analysis of expressional work, and appropriate checklists, the teacher can carry out such aspects of evaluation and lead children to evaluate themselves along similar lines.

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[13] East Baton Rouge Parish Public Schools. *For All Children—World Understanding.* Social Studies Resource Units. Baton Rouge, Louisiana, 1960.

Occasionally resource units include tests for evaluation purposes. For the most part these are in the older units or written for schools or classes where specific subject matter is emphasized and textbooks play a primary role. Current practice tends toward each teacher developing his social studies tests in terms of what his own class has set out to learn, rather than using a test made by someone else who is not familiar with the unit experiences of the children.

It cannot be emphasized too strongly that every social studies resource unit should contain suggestions for evaluation. Too many of the more than 400 units examined lacked any mention of evaluation.

RESOURCES FOR TEACHING AND LEARNING

Most of the resource units studied list a well-rounded and varied selection of appropriate materials, usually at the conclusion of the unit. These often include textbooks, supplementary books, reference books and encyclopedias, periodicals, audio-visual materials, pictures, maps and globes, background reading for the teacher, community resources and free and inexpensive aids to learning.

One weakness in these bibliographies and lists of publications must be noted. Not enough care is taken to include the authors' full names, the place of publication, the date, and the pages. Usually the titles and the last names of the authors are correct. It would save those people who wish to use or publish the units, or order some of the materials, untold hours of looking up incomplete data, if curriculum and unit planners would record the complete and correct bibliographical information at the time they are examining and listing a volume or other type of publication.

Increasingly, resource unit planners are including sources of materials as well as bibliographical lists. This is most helpful to teachers and should be encouraged. Knowing where to write or go for materials is an important asset for the teacher of social studies units.

PREPARATION AND PUBLICATION OF UNITS

Most published or mimeographed social studies resource units have been prepared by committees of teachers, working with supervisors, professors, or other consultants. Also many individual teachers and sometimes schools prepare resource units for their own use with children. Such units are usually typed, or sometimes dittoed or mimeographed, if they are to be shared with other teachers.

Most of the social studies units published by city and county school systems appear in social studies curriculum guides for all the elementary grades or for each grade separately. In the case of lengthy comprehensive resource units containing quantities of suggestions, content material, and inclusive bibliographies, such as those of Long Beach, California, each unit is published separately. The rather lengthy resource units of the Denver social studies program are made available to teachers in a loose-leaf form which lends itself to frequent changes and additions when desirable.

Many social studies units are published in magazines and journals such as the *Grade Teacher, Instructor, Social Education,* or *Journal of Geography*. A new collection of selected social studies units for grades kindergarten-six, as was mentioned previously, has recently been compiled and published by the National Council for the Social Studies.[14]

There is a definite trend toward increasing the number of social studies resource units available to teachers. A decade ago it was recommended that a well-trained teacher should prepare all of her own resource units. Now many supervisors, principals, and professors who work closely with teachers believe that teachers need more time for improving their knowledge of child study, conferring with parents, exploring the community, participating in civic activities, and travel. By making more resource units available for teachers, some of their time is released for these other valuable activities. At the State level, California has begun work in developing some units. Still in California and in other States, most resource unit development is being done by local school systems, both city and county.

ON ATTAINING BETTER DESIGN IN UNIT PLANNING

From the study of hundreds of social studies units published during the past decade, a few suggestions on the design of units are presented here for consideration by those responsible for the development of resource units.

1. Attain a logical, streamlined organization for the structure of the unit design. This is the outline or backbone of the unit on which the various parts will be developed.
2. Avoid a piecemeal approach which can result from too many columns and too much segmentation of items and materials. Keep in mind the interlocking nature of the various elements or sections of the unit design.
3. Point up the significant and reduce the nonessentials and "clutter."
4. Tighten the design so that it has a readily discernable form and structure and does not wander off in all directions.
5. Keep in mind and indicate relationships throughout the unit. As an

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[14] Hill, *op. cit.*

example, the suggestions for evaluation should be in terms of the objectives.

6. Avoid undue duplication. Examples are lists or columns of *Outcomes* which repeat and are merely rewordings of what is already presented under *Content* or *Concepts* or *Understandings.*
7. Develop the design of a unit so that it will result in good teaching and learning. Illustrative of this technique is the presentation of the content of a unit in the form of *Problems and Questions for Developing the Unit* rather than by a topical subject matter outline. The opportunities are better for attaining problem solving and critical thinking experiences for children in the classroom where "Problems and Questions" are suggested in the resource unit.
8. Work toward achieving *balance* throughout the design of a unit. This is especially important in the *Activities* section. Here it is important to secure a good balance between and among the oral and written, reading and listening, dramatic and construction, arts and crafts, music and rhythmic, and many other forms of expression. Balance is needed between informational and expressional activities. Objectives should be balanced by evaluation. And balance is needed in the section on content, in the actual subject matter itself. Balance between the present and the past and especially the future is essential. Balance should be attained among the various social sciences as items are selected for consideration in a social studies unit. *Relevancy* and *appropriateness* are guides to balance that should be used throughout unit planning.
9. Creativity is important in developing a unit design and in following through with suggested learning experiences for children. Considerable originality and flair can be used by the planner which will lead toward a more creative, imaginative way of developing the unit with children.
10. Clear-cut readability enhances the value of a resource unit for those who may use it. Good paragraphing and sentence style are important. Center and side headings, italics, and underlining help the reader locate readily the various sections and the relationships of the unit.
11. Specificity can do a great deal for unit design. There is a great deal of difference in listing as an activity, "Take a field trip" and "Visit the airport to learn about traffic control and the weather station."
12. For units of any length, a table of contents, with paging, is helpful to the user. Names of authors or committee members, place of publication, and the date especially should appear on the title page or cover.

Section Three: Incorporating New Content in Units of Study

Henry R. Hansen and Lelia T. Ormsby

New content is effectively incorporated in the social studies only by dint of varied and rather complex kinds of work. It is little trouble,

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This section was reviewed by John U. Michaelis, University of California, Berkeley, California; Paul R. Hanna, Stanford University, Stanford, California; and Robert W. Reynolds, California State Department of Education, Sacramento, California.

to be sure, to get into the curriculum a dash of information about Sputnik or a few pages dealing with oriental history and society. But identification and adequate organization of the full range of significant content, its placement in relation to all of the rest of the curriculum, and the readying of the content for school "consumption"—these are sizable jobs.

Often the work is done inadequately. Selection, for example, may be slighted. If one assumed that education is merely the passing on of traditional forms to another generation, "selection" would be only "repeating"—same content, same structure. Instead, in a changeful world, new and newly significant content is rapidly appearing. For a given situation, the Post Office or the tulips of the Netherlands are not necessarily the best selection.

Grade placement is another difficult phase. It may be so extremely casual that groups of children will only meander through the social studies, getting varied smatterings, or getting the same smatterings repeatedly, but attaining less than a satisfactory introduction to the basic social studies areas.

Or, a particular difficulty may be that of readying the content for classroom use. So often, sadly, the teacher is inundated with raw data and "resources" which are far removed from readiness for use in teaching. Thus, unreasonable demands are made upon the teacher in areas of procurement, writing, and organization of new materials.

There are related problems which are very practical ones for audio-visual producers and textbook writers: what content, what understandings, and at what grade levels?

For teachers, the problems are intensified by the pressure of time and the daily complexities of instruction.

Newness of content adds special difficulties. When dealing with new content, one must simply do without the long shakedown period which most curricular content has had—many decades, often, of selection and refinement of organization.

In brief, these job-elements challenge us: identification and selection, sequence and placement, organization for pupil use.

A Focal Point

This section on incorporating new content in units of study deals chiefly with the idea of making content fully ready for pupil use.

The terms "pupil use" and "point of use" are used as ways of emphasizing that the discussion deals primarily with that end of the educational enterprise. Toward the other end, so to speak, are pure research, textbook writing, compilation of raw resource materials, and educational policy making. Many of these aspects are dealt with elsewhere in this volume. Here, however, the focus is upon readying content for pupil use. Examples pertain to identifying new content, placing new content, and organizing new content—always with a view to full preparation for actual use by students.

A Haphazard Approach

Willy-nilly, new content does enter the social studies on some scale, but this is not saying very much for the social studies as a significant area of effort. It is equivalent only to saying that tomatoes grew, willy-nilly, for many years before Burbank. With the work of specialists, and with an understanding of significant interrelationships, tomatoes become something more than a decoration.

Systematic Approaches

In the consideration of social studies content there are too many factors involved to tolerate a haphazard approach. Teachers want to *know,* textbook writers want to *know,* audio-visual producers want to *know*. The "knowing" can be of no absolute nature; but it needs to be definite enough for operational purposes—so that books may be prepared; films produced; lessons planned, organized, and taught. Happy inspiration is not adequate; systems and designs are needed to facilitate the incorporation of new content. Figure I is a linear representation of social studies curricular work. It may be thought of as a rough map of the work area. The irregularity of the line in the figure is intended to suggest the overlap and interrelationships of the phases.

On the line is marked a spot at which we shall begin by offering examples of two contrasting designs, or systems, for attacking the new-content problem of "Identification of New Content." Following that, "Placement of New Content" and "Organization for Pupil Use" are discussed.

Identification of New Content

By Over-All Analysis

The problem of getting materials that contain new content may take the form of questions such as these: In what form is new or newly significant content *available?* Or, in what form is it *needed?*

In the proceedings of the Donner Summit Conference of 1958[15]

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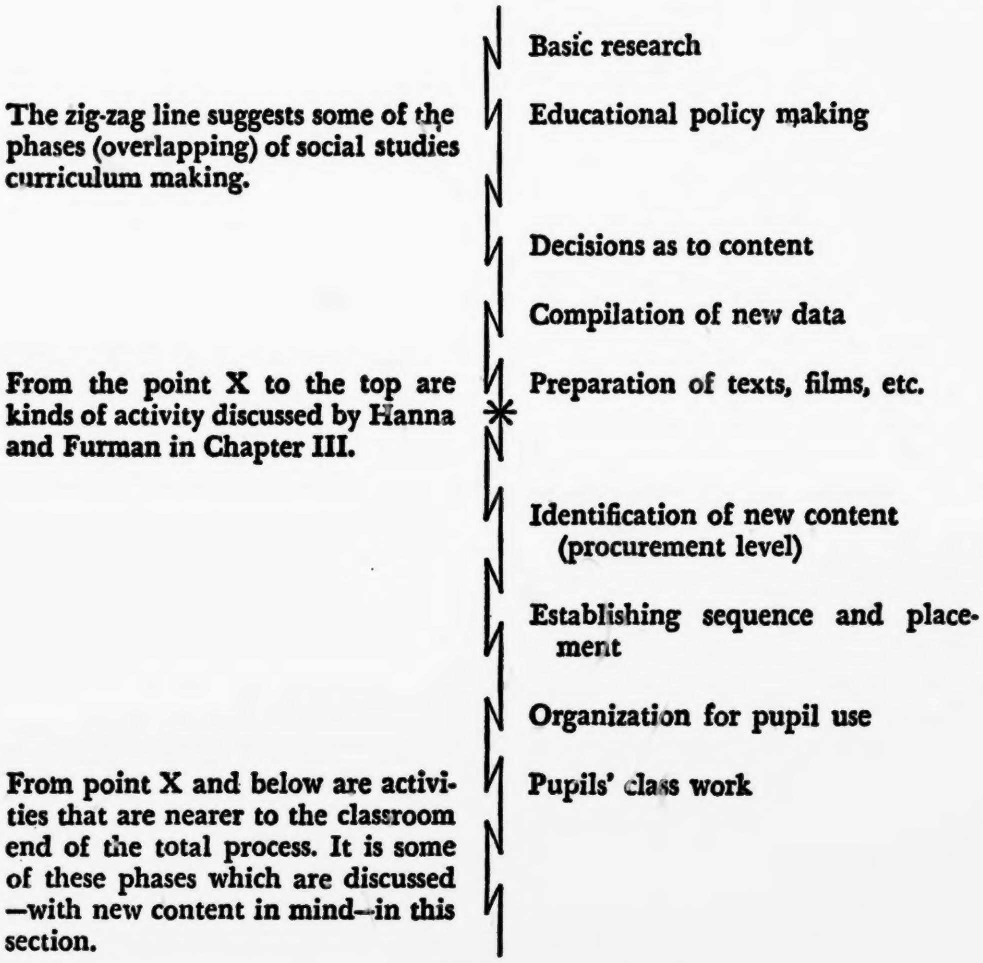
[15] *Report of the 1958 Donner-Summit Audio-Visual—Social Studies Workshop* (Tentative Report). Sacramento: California State Department of Education, October 1958. p. 31. (Mimeographed.) The original chart, six feet by twenty-five feet in size—true Summit proportions—was hung from the pine trees for Conference study.


Basic research
Educational policy making
Decisions as to content
Compilation of new data
Preparation of texts, films, etc.
Identification of new content (procurement level)
Establishing sequence and placement
Organization for pupil use
Pupils' class work

The zig-zag line suggests some of the phases (overlapping) of social studies curriculum making.

From the point X to the top are kinds of activity discussed by Hanna and Furman in Chapter III.

From point X and below are activities that are nearer to the classroom end of the total process. It is some of these phases which are discussed —with new content in mind—in this section.

FIGURE I

there is found an example of a systematic attack upon these problems by means of graphic analysis. On a huge analysis chart, types of materials were used as the left-margin headings for broad horizontal spaces stretching across the chart. The fourteen vertical spaces were marked for grades I through XIV. Certain content was shown in the headings of each grade-level column. (See Figure II.)

The fill-in of the chart was accomplished, as much as was possible, by placing within the spaces of a given row the exact titles, or other identification, of materials which dealt with the designated content. The titles were placed in the column marked by the appropriate grade-level heading.

Such a "spread" aided in establishing a comprehensive view. Gaps were readily noted. Recurring emphases were studied. It was a productive exercise in finding what material was available, and secondly, what material was needed.

	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	(Other grades listed)
Type of Material	Living in Home, School, and Neighborhood	Living in Our Community	Discovering How Communities Depend on Each Other	
Films				
Filmstrips				
Study Prints				
Other Materials				

FIGURE II

In Yolo County, California, a somewhat similar analysis[16] was conducted by a staff group. It, too, was a basic analysis to find out what was needed—what was available—and at what grade levels. It took the form of a summarization of significant generalizations classified under basic human activities (denoting scope) in relationship to grade levels and in relation to topical content statements. New and newly significant content has an optimum entree when the basic generalizations are reviewed in total pattern.

The fundamental characteristic of this way of working, this design, is that it moves a curriculum group or a publisher far beyond the hortatory position ("There ought to be a unit—a book—a film. . . .") and into an area where available items are identified or where the gaps stand out as glaring blank spaces, challenging the writer, the publisher, and the curriculum office.

The teacher cannot produce out of nothingness the range of materials needed. Or, if by virtue of special gifts, he can, he still should not be expected to do so; he has other highly significant work to do. Systematic analysis helps the appropriate offices and specialists to "ready" new and newly significant content for utilization by teachers and pupils.

A second design, discussed below, is in considerable contrast.

Random Identification

Valiant attempts sometimes are made to incorporate new content by doing "regular" work during most of the week and then trying to find, sift, and interpret newer content on one special day when current events are considered. This rather random system may serve as the contrasting example of a design for "finding new content." It is too often characteristic of this system that pupils are trying to do a most important phase of their work without significant aid, resources, or goals.

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[16] *Work Sheets for Social Studies Concept and Generalizations Development.* Woodland, California: Yolo County Schools, November 1960. (Mimeographed.)

The operation may be referred to loosely as the New-Content-Is-For-Friday system. Nevertheless, is deserves respectful treatment, for even the thinnest current-eventing may be better than assuming that significant new content does not exist at all.

In fact, skillful teachers do often contrive to obtain, with the impetus of the current events concept, very significant new content and do build excellent learning situations. The current events design should be credited with being widely productive, even though it often does not measure up to the full possibilities.

The treatment of new content in this fashion is noted here only for contrast. A later subsection will include discussion of the more highly developed efforts along this line. They are characterized by integration, insight, and the use of excellent current materials.

PLACEMENT OF NEW CONTENT

New or newly significant content has its special problem of sequence in that it must not only be *related* in optimum fashion to all older content but, also, it must *crack its way into* the established sequence. That is, to be thoroughly ready-for-use the new content needs to have a carefully selected place and, secondly, that place needs to be rather formally legitimatized. In other words, the incorporating of the content needs to be lifted above the level of accident; the placement needs to be a matter of design.

Problems as to placement are difficult. As always, in decision making, there is involved a choice between "goods" (or "evils," as your values may dictate). But the choices must be made if new content is to be, in fact, incorporated. Continuing vacillation about the perfect placement would settle the matter by default—negatively—it would not get in at all.

Problems of flexibility versus rigidity are significant, too. Surely flexibility is the key operational guide in some matters of sequence. If a volcano, earthquake, or hurricane shatters a community, *now*—at almost any grade level—will be a good time for the study of weather, or physics, or diseaster procedure—extreme flexibility!

But the consideration here is of longer-term sequence and placement. Systematic re-examination of designs is needed, with decision making as to the sequence and place of new content, or the content simply will not be able to break into the established structure.

Development of significant relationships and avoidance of wasteful, repetitious meandering are aided when new content is examined in relationship to the old. Patchwork actually has its merits of the moment; but the long-term view, too, is essential—to see content in systematic fashion, systematically related to the curricular whole.

Indicated, then, are these two needs:

1. *Clarity of design.* There is need for an easily examined sequence and placement structure. It should be so easily examined that it invites examination. The design needs high "visibility."
2. *Validity.* There is need for a sequence and placement structure which has basic validity, so that patches will not be forever added to earlier patches.

Examples of sequence and grade-placement analyses constructed with these two criteria in mind are familiar, but it may be useful to examine one of them as a reminder of some of the realities of the placement problem. Certainly it is unrealistic to suppose that incorporation of new content on any adequate scale will take place when that content only floats about, unrelated to existing sequence and placement structures. Furthermore, curriculum workers requisition materials and business offices buy materials *with sequence and grade placement in mind.*

The California Central Social Studies Committee, which has recently published a five-year study[17] of social studies content, faced the realities of the placement problem thus: Scholars from the several disciplines formed study groups and searched for the content deemed to be presently most significant. The Central Committee assisted in planning appropriate grade placement by stating themes and areas of emphasis for each grade from kindergarten through the fourteenth year.

Content was stated by the specialists in the form of generalizations. Reduction of the generalizations to workable size for each grade was a step reserved to county, city, and district curriculum staffs. For example:

A generalization.[18] Change is a condition of human society; societies rise and fall; value systems improve or deteriorate; the tempo of change varies with cultures and periods of history.

And, as to placement. A November, 1960, publication[19] (a county extension of the state document) establishes grade placement of generalizations from kindergarten through eighth. The above generalization relative to "change" is given major emphasis in grades one, two, three, and five, and minor emphasis in grades six and eight. An excerpt from grade five suggests new content appropriate to that level under the heading, "How the nation looks to the future."[20] The outline includes:

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[17] *Report of the State Central Committee on Social Studies.* Sacramento: California State Department of Education, October 1959. (Mimeographed.) 1551 p.

[18] *Ibid.*, p. 73.

[19] *Social Studies—Science Course of Study.* Sacramento: Sacramento County Board of Education, November 1960.

> Hawaii and Alaska—two new states; how these and the possessions of the United States are growing and changing
>
> How advances in communication, transportation, production, and education affect the thinking and interrelationships among people.
>
> What new technics and procedures in business, government, and international relations are being developed because of increasing interdependence.

This kind of insightful attack upon the placement problem is characterized by the "high visibility" referred to above. There is clarity which aids utilization and aids equally in the refining and adjusting which is continuously needed. This way of working also furthers the systematic quest for validity since it involves turning directly to scholar specialists and soliciting their current advice as to choice of the content significant for here and now.

The individual teacher who organizes a special unit of study for his own class is constrained to deal with the problems of placement with equal rigor. He needs a clear over-all placement design.

A half dozen sixth grade teachers found that the sequence of the social studies curriculum assigned to their grade level was "The Atlantic Community." The rationale for this sequential placement was based on the "Expanding Communities of Man" concept developed by Paul R. Hanna, Lee Jacks Professor of Child Education, Stanford University, California. The teachers studied the scope and sequence carefully prior to writing teaching units, and outlined the work of the year. In so doing, they indicated the items of the scope and the generalizations which would receive primary emphasis.[21] New and newly significant content is suggested by some of the statements of generalizations.

Unit 1—*The Shrinking World*

Scope	Generalizations
Communicating—	Physical barriers to communication are rapidly disappearing, but the psychological obstacles remain.
Transporting—	Without economical and efficient ways of transporting goods, present-day civilization could not exist.
Producing—	The more there is specialization of production, the more essential it becomes to have cooperation.

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[20] *Ibid.*, p. 148-49.

[21] Recorded by Sidney Bergquist, Teacher, Sacramento County, California.

Unit 2—*Cultural Migration*

Scope	Generalizations
Communicating—	When we communicate, we are trying to establish a common ground with someone.
Transporting—	Man's need for transportation is timeless and all-inclusive. It is equally essential to all cultural activities.
Religion—	The principle that when groups move to a new location they carry their old culture with them explains that which otherwise would seem a most curious mixture of religious institutions in the changing community.

Unit 3—*Cultural and Social Organization*

Scope	Generalizations
Organizing—	The primary function of human culture and of social organization is the meeting of man's needs.
Organizing—	Men are interdependent yet different, so they need community organization, policies, and laws, and the enforcement of same.

Unit 4—*Group Environment Develops Attitudes*

Scope	Generalizations
Educating—	What a child learns and the prejudices he acquires depend on the groups with which he is identified.
Religion—	Local geographical environment influences religious expression.
Educating—	All societies make some distinction in what they expect of individuals at different stages of development.

Unit 5—*Recreation and Art—Both Unique and Universal*

Scope	Generalizations
Recreating—	Recreational patterns vary from country to country and from region to region within a country.
Esthetics—	There are no societies which lack, altogether, artistic activities.

In a third grade the teaching unit was planned to contribute to the development of generalizations involving "change" and "interdependence."[22] Selected examples of how the teacher interwove new content with old are quoted.

> Step 1: From the statement in the unit came this generalization which relates transportation to change and interdependence: "Accelerated development of the means of transportation has forced man to *change* his ideas of space and mutual *dependence*."
>
> Sub-ideas which contributed to the large central idea are:

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[22] *Social Studies—Science Course of Study, op. cit.,* p. 52-55.

- The development of power precedes the development of the vehicle and the ways goods and people are transported.
- Improved mechanics of transportation give man a greater range and speed of movement for himself and his goods.
- Greater range and speed of movement make people depend on one another for goods now more than long ago.

Step 2: Teacher set up an environment or situation which aroused interest in finding answers to questions about travel. Captions on pictures and exhibits of different kinds of transportation—old and new—included these:

How have these ways of travel changed?
What brought about these changes?
How have they helped us? Hurt us?
What can we expect in the future?

These questions became the problems needing answers. It was expected that investigation would lead to looking for answers in the community and beyond. From their investigation pupils would begin to understand the technological changes in transportation and the effect on their lives and ideas of space and time.

Step 3: Teacher planned experiments and activities to show the relation of speed to modes of travel and that the addition of mechanical power increased speed of travel and "shortened distances." The experiments and activities included:

Using the film, "Our Shrinking World," followed by discussion, pictures, and stories from the class.

ORGANIZATION FOR PUPIL USE

The organizational forms we know as textbooks provide our most familiar and accessible curricular content. And nothing equals the textbooks, to be sure. Yet, with respect to new content, its utility is limited; as to the inclusion of developing content, books are relatively slow. *New* content has to do with today and the probable tomorrow, and one who intends to utilize this content will look for additional organizational designs which will facilitate its identification, its placement in relation to the rest of the curriculum, and its preparation for class use.

But if books are "slow," the use of non-text materials presents yet another problem; they tend to be extremely difficult to handle; they are less conveniently packaged. The form of new content is likely to be the scattered magazine articles, the ephemeral newspapers, and individual experiences of travelers. Content about Korea, for example, is in the individual experiences of thousands of soldiers, in periodicals, in daily newspapers; it is not generally available in adopted texts.

In addition, the newer content tends to be prepared for adults rather than for pupils; so new content usually appears in scattered form and, if packaged at all, is packaged for adults. Population changes are an increasingly significant social factor, for example. But how much of what has been said about the great significance of population growth is available in materials written at pupil level? There is a good deal in pupil texts about topography, but how much about population changes?

An appearance of incorporating new content may exist when there is a flood of raw resources and a minimum of dependence on adopted pupil texts and prepared teachers' manuals. It is as though one grandly said, "We are tied down by nothing; all things are possible."

But our suggestion here is that more real incorporation of appropriate new content may take place if, in addition to saying, "All things are possible," we may say, ". . . and these certain materials are *ready*."

May we consider, for a moment, the range of work which teachers commonly do in the name of flexibility or freedom. They do the business office work of ordering materials (and sometimes paying for them!); the curriculum office work of developing scope and sequence patterns; the author's work of producing books, films, plays; the publisher's work of printing charts. They need, certainly, the liberty to do any or all of these things, but to make them all a necessity is too much. More of the teacher's energy needs to be available to reorganize, to modify, to personalize, to choose and discard. Practically speaking, teachers generally have more freedom—not less—when they are well supplied with materials ready for use.

It will doubtless be the continuing function of the teacher to act as organizer of learning experiences, facilitator, leader, catalyst. But is it reasonable to expect that he will be, also, the miniature business office, the librarian, the writer?

In the area of organization, these needs, then, appear if new content is to be actually incorporatd on any satisfactory scale:

New content: Organization of curricula should be planned to encompass new content systematically.
New form: Varied organizational forms are needed (as, for example, the newspaper or magazine format to supplement texts).
Readied for pupil use: New content enters into pupil experience more readily if it is prepared at pupil level.

Educational Television

Some ETV is an excellent example of these principles of organization for pupil use. In certain programs the suggested specifications are fully met: (a) newer content, (b) a new organizational form, and (c) readied for use at the pupil level (that is, for direct pupil consumption).

Not all ETV is designed for such purposes, of course. For good reasons, a given series may take old content and use the TV medium chiefly for drill purposes.

But the medium is, after all, different from the Gutenberg medium. It is characterized by immediacy in time and space, and by personalness in that it visually facilitates identification with persons.

These two characteristics make TV particularly appropriate to some learning situations which involve *new* content in the *social* areas. Program possibilities in these connections are exciting.

Pupil-Level Magazines and Periodicals

One notable aid to utilization of current content has been the development of several fine publications, of newspaper or small-magazine format, for school use. One who examines those offered will find excellent publications at each level. Their design is such that they do two things of particular utility: they organize the tremendous volume of current material week by week, and they provide the material at useful reading levels.

Such current content is incorporated in the social studies in a superior way when it is fully combined with other content and when the current materials, themselves, are used in integrated fashion with all other materials. Thus used, these materials illustrate another productive design.

To be avoided is the separateness which is suggested, superficially, by the different organization and format of typical current materials. When those materials are used *for their value,* rather than for their size, shape, and date, instruction will be bettered by this, another, design for incorporating new content.

Over the years, the progression from few instructional materials to *many* and varied materials has been steady; and it may be expected that use of pupil-level materials of the newspaper and magazine format will greatly increase. The factors which make their development not only likely but highly desirable are these: Such ephemeral materials are uniquely suited to the incorporating of new content in the curriculum, and the "change" factor in society makes new content increasingly important. The basic suggestion here is that current publications for use in social studies classes are not a luxury; they are essential.

The Teacher's Manual

In the teaching of reading, teachers' manuals have been highly successful. If the "manual" genre can be combined with the "unit of study" genre, special values may be obtained.

We would first need to disabuse ourselves of the notion that, in teaching, to be prepared is to be restricted. A manual includes some assumptions, some compromises, some detailed preparation; all of these *can* be restrictive; none need be. Instead, one who has the maximum in ready-materials usually feels that he has increased freedom—he has progressed beyond Hobson's Choice.

The present writers walked directly into the difficulties in this area—and into some mistakes, to be sure—when they undertook to prepare teachers' manuals for students with whom they were working in student teaching situations.[23]

Their judgment now is that, over-all, teachers with present limited resources (including limited time) were significantly assisted by availability of teachers' manuals developed in harmony with the unit-of-study concept. Format of the manuals was such as to discourage rigidity and to facilitate the utilization of fresh and differentiated materials.

"Readying" new content for pupil use may be facilitated by the development of such manuals. The gain derives from these two features:

1. Much preliminary work is already done for the teacher.
2. The manual format and organization stimulates the inclusion of newer content. The teacher need not do *all* the organizational work; so he can concentrate on transitions, adaptation to his own particular class, inclusion of current content.

Organization by Teacher-Teams

Frankly, the underlying rationale for the use of teams of teachers needs clarification. It appears to be a solid idea, but it lacks adequate delineation. Here, for immediate purposes, let us only note the renewed interest in this means of instructional organization and relate it to the "new content" problem.

As observed before, new content is not ready for pupil use merely because it exists and has been referred to briefly as raw resource material. It must be brought within the experience-range of the pupils.

Teachers "bring in" the content to a large extent; they are the agents. They first study in certain areas as undergraduates. As practicing teachers, they seek constantly to expand their knowledge and keep "up to date," yet no one does this perfectly. You, for example, will know the old *and the new* content in how many areas?

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[23] Hansen, Henry R., and Lelia T. Ormsby. *A Manual of Units in the Social Studies.* Sacramento, California: State College, 1956. (Mimeographed.)

The teacher-team concept assumes, in part, that since the range of knowledge (and of *necessary* knowledge) is increasingly wide it is sometimes useful to have some degree of increased specialization in acquaintanceship with that formidable range—increased specialization with respect to bringing it within the range of pupil-experience. Hence, the teacher-team.

As applied to "new content," the same idea is operative here as when a social studies teacher uses resource persons: to do a full-size job, more, and more specialized, people are needed.

If content were static, need for teacher-teams would be different. The dynamics of the social studies, however, suggest, in all realism, the increased use of this means of incorporating new content.

Summary

The introduction to this section noted that this changeful world requires significant, continuing change in social studies content.

Some changes will occur willy-nilly, of course, but systematic efforts are necessary in order to advance beyond the hit-and-miss coverage, wasteful meandering, or mere decoration.

It seems obviously fruitless to exhort teachers to work harder! run faster! know everything! Rather, if new content is to be added in effective form, the development must come from increased efficiency. It must come from the use of productive designs, or plans, or systems.

Panoramic examinations of the many-grade, many-discipline curriculum of social studies are conceived to be the basic approach. Accent here is on identifying new or newly significant content from the contributing disciplines, and upon continuing development of visible, valid patterns of sequence and placement.

Units of study are thought of as the broad organizational structure. Within such a framework, media for the new content are as varied as the range from standard text to television; and useful formats for the handling of new content are as varied as the teaching manual, the magazine of current events, and the extension-of-personality "format" provided by the teaching team.

The point of view given special emphasis has been this: New content is not "incorporated" simply because it does exist, or has been noticed; it is essential that it be *readied to the point of pupil use.* This is in large part the job of writers and curriculum specialists. Teachers have other significant and pre-emptive tasks to handle.

Various illustrative practices were examined with a view to stressing identification of new content, placement of new content, and organization of the content to the point of pupil use.

Section Four: Teacher Planning for a Specific Class

Marian Jenkins

CONSIDERING CRITERIA FOR SELECTION OF AREAS OF STUDY

When the teacher is confronted with the need to plan social studies experiences for the year, he usually has several printed guides for reference: city and/or county courses of study and state publications as well as bulletins and monographs published by the local district. In district guides the units for the year may be precisely described or it may be that from some general suggestions the teacher is to choose studies for his class. In still other guides it may be suggested that teacher and pupils work out the plans together. Frequently criteria such as those which follow are offered to aid in the final selection of a unit of study.

1. What are the major concepts, generalizations or ideas which students have gained in past studies? Which should be further developed? What are the new concepts and generalizations that should be introduced?
2. What are the interests and experiences of individuals within the class and school which may serve as guides to the selection of areas of study?
3. What materials are available or can be secured for some of the studies which might be carried out: teacher references, children's books, films, study prints, maps, etc?
4. How up-to-date, accurate and unbiased are the materials available?

Consideration of these criterias by the teacher—making notes as ideas present themselves—will lead to a choice of study which is within the distinct framework yet related to the development of the pupils in the class.

Before a teaching sequence is planned much thought needs to be devoted to the breadth and depth of the particular area of study. At this point a thorough analysis by the teacher is needed in order to explore all the possibilities. Notes should be made of every idea no matter how unobtainable it may seem. The teacher will find that even far-fetched ideas may work out with students once they become

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This section was reviewed by Martha Hittinger, Director of Curriculum, Los Nietos School District; Sandra Kaplan, Second Grade Teacher, Inglewood Unified School District; Evelyn Marshall, Third Grade Teacher, Los Nietos School District; Louise G. Parkin, Principal, Inglewood Unified School District; Norma Soper, Fifth Grade Teacher, Los Nietos School District; and Eleanor Willard, Kindergarten Teacher, Inglewood Unified School District, California.

aroused and once they are helped to identify and work on problems of concern to them. Such planning on the part of the teacher becomes a creative activity if one agrees with the definition of creativity of Earl Kelley and Marie Rasey:

> Whenever an individual takes a set of known answers and contrives a new response, concept, or artifact he is creative. It is the process of taking the things we now have or now know and putting these together in such a way that something new emerges. . . . The great volume of creativity is to be found in the small and relatively simple operations of ordinary people whose minds have been kept free to contrive. Unique contriving is the flower of the thinking process. It can bloom only in a climate of freedom. It is the growing edge of discovery and invention, the method of progress.[24]

IDENTIFYING CONCEPTS AND GENERALIZATIONS

The analysis is developed to provide opportunities for problem solving thus highlighting critical thinking, concepts, and generalizations. Many monographs and courses of study suggest categories of generalizations that need to be part of each study if superficiality is to be avoided. Here is perhaps a typical organization of ideas in which generalizatons may be thought out:[25]

> Geographic relationships pointing up land forms, land use and man-made features.
>
> Scientific and technological relationships emphasizing people with their ideas and skills, materials, processes, and the relation of function and form.
>
> Physical and social changes of the past, present and possibilities for the future.
>
> Contributions of individuals, groups, countries; that is, historical development.
>
> Cooperative rules and regulations including the democratic processes by which they are achieved within the family, classroom, school, community, state, nation and among nations.
>
> Feeling and emotional response of people as shown in dramatic play, dramatization, literature, art, music and the dance.

Using these categories as headings, the teacher may set up several pages leaving space under each heading to record the pertinent generalization. Then the teacher will state generalizations in writing, using the categories as suggested here which pertain to the study selected. For instance, in the study "How People Live Together in a Community" generalizations such as the following may be found under various headings in the teacher's analysis:[26]

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[24] Kelley, Earl C. and Marie I. Rasey. *Education and the Nature of Man*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952. p. 116.

[25] The suggestions in this paper regarding an analysis are adapted from materials prepared originally by Marie M. Hughes, formerly Consultant, Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools Office, and now Professor of Education, University of Utah and Marian Jenkins, Consultant, Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools Office, and used for some years in the County Schools with teachers.

> People everywhere have the same basic needs.
>
> People satisfy their needs by using natural, human, and cultural resources.
>
> Individuals are different.
>
> Belief in the value of the individual is a basic belief in our country.
>
> We need to recognize when changes are necessary and learn how best to make them.
>
> All groups have developed ways of getting along together.
>
> As citizens we work together in governing ourselves.
>
> We need to understand the importance of good human relations.
>
> In working together democratically, we trust each other, use our minds, and talk things over.

These ideas (concepts and generalizations) are the objectives toward which the teacher works, but for the pupils they are the outcomes to be gained.There should be no confusion here on this point. Students do not learn these generalizations as stated by the teacher. However, they will eventually come to stating some such basic ideas in their own words. This process of generalizing will develop provided the teacher leads pupils, through summaries and discussions, to pull together the important learnings and to find opportunities where direct application may be made in daily living.

> . . . generalizations will serve the teacher in his preplanning by helping him gain perspective on the total area of study. He may begin his planning by selecting certain ideas as being those most helpful for his group to work toward. For the teacher, then, such basic ideas are the beginning of his planning—and the goals for his year's work. For the children, such ideas are generalizations reached only after a long sequence of experiences. But at any age and at any point in their development, as experience continuously modifies and expands their thinking, children may gain some insight into these basic learnings. School experiences, with the teacher's skillful guidance, can provide sound basis for such insight.[27]

These general ideas, as stated by the teacher, give direction to the year's study. It will be noted that the basic generalizations include not only content to be learned but the processes of problem solving to be undertaken, the interpersonal relationships of the children and the skills to be gained. This is as it should be, as learning in all these facets goes on at the same time in the day-by-day living of the group.

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[26] Many of the ideas expressed in this paper are derived or adapted from: Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools, Division of Elementary Education, *A Study of Democracy*, Curriculum Supplement: Social Studies—Related Sciences No. 2. Los Angeles 12: County Board of Education, September 1953. 148 pages.

[27] *Ibid.*, p. 37.

These generalizations also serve as a guide in evaluation. From time to time in the course of the study with the class, the teacher and the group will check back to see what progress is being made toward the accomplishment of the goals they had considered in their planning.

THINKING OUT QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

The next step for the teacher is to list possible questions and problems for study which are suggested by the generalizations. Whether these exact problems as stated will actually be used with the class is beside the point here. The class and teacher working together will identify and state their own problems. As the teacher plans and records his thinking about pertinent problems, he may open up leads not heretofore discovered. Having canvassed a wide range of problems, the teacher certainly should feel prepared for any eventuality. There need be no attempt to match each generalization with a problem as one problem may relate to several generalizations. However, it is important to see that each generalization is "covered" if depth of understanding is to be gained. With reference to the generalizations suggested above these might conceivably be some of the problems the teacher would think of:

What should be known about the people who make up this community?
Is the class made up of "old-timers" or newcomers?
How long have their families lived in this community?
What skills, ideas, and customs did they bring with them?
How are these skills being used?
What per cent of the people are new to the community?

How do people feel about leaving an old place and moving to a new location?
How do people feel about newcomers?
How are they helped to become a part of the school, neighborhood, and larger community?
What makes a community a friendly, happy place in which to live?
How can individuals, families, and neighborhoods make a community a good place in which to live?

What groups are represented in our community?
To what groups do the class members belong?
What part have these groups played in building the community?
What kinds of work do the families represented in the class do?

What did the early settlers do for a living?

How do their occupations compare with those of families today?
How many of the parents are self-employed?
How does this compare with the number of self-employed in earlier times?
What kinds of important jobs are open to children and youth in the community?
What kinds of work did boys and girls formerly carry on?

What kinds of recreation do families of class members engage in?
What did early settlers do for recreation?
What is needed in our community to provide for better use of leisure time?
What can the class members do to help provide a better recreational program?

What changes have taken place in this community?
How have they come about?
How do people feel about these changes?
How do they affect individuals, families, neighborhoods?
What changes are in process of being made in the community?
What are the problems in transportation and housing?
What are some of the possible future developments in transporation, communication, industry, recreation, and health in this community?

What ordinances have been made to provide for improvements in handling juvenile problems?

What is the relation of this community to the metropolitan area and to other communities in the county, state, and nation in relation to transportation, communication, industry, agriculture, and health?

Planning for Attacking the Problems

Students will learn skills of problem solving and critical thinking if they are helped to know what is involved in the problem solving process. Social studies offer great opportunities to learn the orderliness of problem solving and some of the characteristics of problems which can be solved. Individuals will be guided, too, in thinking about problems which cannot be solved by them or perhaps even by anyone at present. They will learn that problem solving is not always an orderly process. They may gain some ideas about the rewards of speculation, of following one's curiosity and of using one's imagination. They may also experience the thrill of insight and the satisfaction of understanding.

So the teacher's next steps in his own planning relate to the attack on the problems. All the possible ways of securing information concerning the problems are recorded. As he thinks of ways of gaining information he is naturally led to consider ways of organizing the information secured. In such an analysis as this it may look as though these two steps follow one another in an orderly manner. Often when children work with the problems the two processes—securing and organizing—may go on simultaneously. However, pupils should be helped to understand that it is sometimes dangerous to start organizing information too soon, else securing of further useful information may be cut short.

In planning to secure information from a variety of sources ways of verifying should also be recorded. Information from one source for example—an informed person—may be verified, negated, or found to be incomplete due to information from another source such as a film, book or map. It is of vital importance that pupils learn to test the accuracy, up-to-dateness and appropriateness to the problem of any information secured. The teacher will help the class to see that some information which may seem to be in conflict with other information may in reality be accurate—for instance, the fact that securing food is carried on in different ways by different people or by the same people in different ways under different times or conditions. So in the teacher's planning all avenues of securing and verifying information will be canvassed and recorded. The teacher may set up pages (or card file) using the following ideas as headings—one to a page. This will provide adequate space to record and also give space for additional ideas which may occur later. Information may be secured and verified from:

1. Industrial processes—indicate raw materials, processes, and finished products
2. Study trips—include name, address, and what may be observed
3. Interviews with and talks by informed people—indicate names, addresses, and information available
4. Films, study prints, filmstrips and exhibits—include titles, catalog notations, and information available
5. Science experiments—indicate materials, processes, and principles exemplified
6. Books, pamphlets, periodicals, and newspapers—record author's name, title, publisher, date of publication, and information available
7. Maps, globes, charts, and graphs—indicate types of material, source, date of publication, and information available
8. Radio and television programs—note station or channel, time, title of program, and information available
9. Letters written to secure specific information—include name, address, and information desired.

There is much content from bodies of knowledge already organized which will be needed in problem solving. The teacher will need to include this in his planning. For instance, in some studies many facts and principles of history, geography, and science will be utilized. Information about health and nutrition may be needed. Facts and principles of mathematics may be essential. Whatever knowledge pertinent to the particular study ought to be recorded. As a result the teacher will have a feeling of being prepared not only as to sources but also as to specifics. Thus the work with the class will become more productive of sound learning. So from the following bodies of knowledge the main ideas and references needed should be recorded. Again headings for pages may be made which will provide space to record ideas under each heading.

Geography
History
Science, including health and nutrition
Mathematics

The teacher may wish to add here ideas from psychology, sociology, economics, etc. The generalizations will furnish the clues as to the material needed.

Next, ways of organizing information will be explored and as before listed on separate pages. Organizing information may be thought of as occurring in:

1. Constructing child-sized objects—include materials needed, tools and specifications
2. Constructing models and miniatures—include materials tools and plans
3. Engaging in dramatic play activities—indicate materials needed
4. Participating in dramatizations and plays—indicate materials needed
5. Making reports, records, outlines, diaries, booklets—note the possible activity, type of record, etc.
6. Making maps, graphs, tables, timelines—indicate type and include samples
7. Making murals, movies, puppet shows—indicate possible content
8. Developing bulletin-board displays and exhibits—indicate possible content
9. Planning assembly programs for other classes, parents and other community groups.

PLANNING FOR EVALUATION

The teacher will give thought also to what will come from this study in the changed behavior of the pupils. When pupils learn to work on problems in an orderly way, to summarize, generalize and interpret learnings, apply ideas gained, and evaluate skills learned, there is a tendency to change behavior in line with the learnings. Therefore this part of the teacher's planning is really the crux of the matter. Will the pupils, having been exposed to, guided, and led through this study, then demonstrate behavior, skills, and appreciations that we considered desirable outcomes? Will they also show changed ideas and behavior in relation to the goals they themselves set up as important to accomplish? This is the time for the teacher to refer back to the generalizations to see whether the analysis made has the possibility of leading to the desired ends.

In many monographs about planning social studies experiences these important outcomes are never indicated and one is left to infer that individuals automatically will, on their own, generalize and inevitably change their behavior. It is more and more evident as criticisms are made of education that this cannot be left to chance. This high mental process—conceptualization—is also one which can be guided and developed. It must become a conscious part of an individual's experience if real evidence of growth in critical thinking and changed behavior is expected. Hence it is well to consider some aspects of the expected behavior and to record the ideas on separate pages using the following headings. In what situations can pupils:

1. Observe the application of social studies concepts?
2. Apply social studies concepts in daily living?
3. Observe the application of scientific principles?
4. Utilize and apply scientific principles in daily living?
5. Observe the application of mathematical principles?
6. Utilize and apply mathematical knowledge in daily living?

The teacher may wish to add here ideas from psychology, sociology, economics, etc. Reference to the generalizations will furnish clues.

The class may also indicate its knowledge, thinking, and appreciations as it interprets its experiences. This last list, using a page for each heading, will indicate opportunities which should be provided for interpreting through:

1. Discussion and other oral expression
2. Painting, using clay and wood, etc.
3. Using dramatic play and dramatization
4. Writing original stories and verse
5. Selecting and reading literature
6. Engaging in rhythmic expression
7. Using musical instruments
8. Composing original songs and rhythms
9. Appreciating music composed by others.

PLANNING THE INITIATION

Once the teacher has completed this analysis of an area of experience, he may wish to make notes on ways of approaching or initiating the study. He may list the materials to be used in the classroom at the outset to intrigue pupils and to get at their background of knowledge and interests. The full planning of actual teaching sequences, however, should proceed with the class. They and the teacher will set up problems which will be indicative of goals. They will plan for ways of working with the problems and ways of evaluating progress.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

Teachers who have planned in ways similar to those suggested here report a richer experience for them and their classes, more depth and variety in activities and ideas and greater accuracy and breadth in concepts and generalizations. They are able to provide for a wider range of abilities and interests within the class—thus exciting and motivating the more able learners and stimulating the less able to work up to their abilities. From such experiences individuals tend to develop sensitivity and skills which lead to changed behavior. They see their goals accomplished and really learn to evaluate their behavior somewhat objectively. Perhaps this is what Jacques Barzun means when he says:

> To many good people the American zeal for acquiring and storing facts is praiseworthy and I am ready to concede that once in a while the presence of factual minds in our midst is an asset. In a vast housekeeping operation such as war, the men of facts can be mustered out and pumped dry for the good of the state, their scattered drops of particular knowledge being caused to flow together into a great reservoir. But even in war this is useful only if the scarcer and more valuable type of man is available, the man of ideas with a mind accustomed not merely to holding facts in solution but to crystallizing them for use. And the making of such men in sufficient numbers and varieties ought to be the great end of all our teaching.[28]

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[28] Barzun, Jacques. *Teacher in America*. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1945. p. 270.

CHAPTER IX

Planning for Children of Varying Ability

Ole Sand and Bruce Joyce

> How much deviation does this society require for progress? It requires just as much deviation, just as many uniquely developed peaks of ability, just as much idiosyncrasy as the attainment of its goals will allow and need. All societies are wasteful of the capacities of their people. The society which comes closest to developing every socially useful idiosyncrasy in every one of its members will make the greatest progress toward its goals.[1]

Even where schools have attempted to develop "homogeneous" class groupings, children in every classroom vary widely in many characteristics.[2]

In a typical classroom the variations are so great that the most skillful teacher cannot hope to accommodate them through his own efforts, alone. Planning for children of varying ability involves the entire school staff in the creation of a social climate that supports the children while demanding their best efforts.

In planning for variation, a school staff must:

1. Be dedicated to the proposition of furthering excellence in learners of all talents.
2. Be willing to create school and classroom climates that emphasize learner initiative and responsibility and a high level of criticism of ideas and self.
3. Be determined to provide the psychological security which enables the gifted to be properly challenged and supports the slow as they learn alongside their more gifted peers.
4. Re-examine subject matter to find the structures, methods of inquiry, and important ideas which can challenge the gifted and which, through careful teaching, can instruct the less able.[3]

Planning for varying abilities in the social studies today is a particularly demanding job because of the nature of the content—a content which derives from a social scene so complex that few adults understand it in its entirety.

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[1] Benjamin, Harold. *The Cultivation of Idiosyncrasy*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1949. p. 36-37.

[2] For a discussion of variation among class groups, see: Goodlad, John I., and Robert H. Anderson. *The Nongraded Elementary School*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1959. 248 p.

[3] Bruner, Jerome. *The Process of Education*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1960. 97 p.

> We are planning for youth whose environment is characterized by mass indifference and an unawareness of the perils in the military revolution, the new industrial and scientific revolution, and the emergence of the under-developed countries. We are planning for youth who must come to grips with ever new "explosions"; the explosion in learning, in population, in communication, to name a few already upon us.[4]

But the very complexity of the social studies is also the source of possibilities for developing the talents of the gifted.

> It may require more competence to understand human behavior than to comprehend the movements of the planets, more skill to create a new social order than to fabricate a new missile. The problems confronting the social scientist are formidable and perplexing enough to lend substance to the charge made by one social scientist that "some brilliant minds, discouraged by their inability to fathom human motivation, have fallen back to the simpler problems of nuclear physics."[5]

In today's schools, most of the job of planning for children of varying ability must be done by busy teachers in crowded classrooms. It is especially to those teachers that this chapter is addressed.

The chapter is presented in two sections. The first deals with issues and general problems in planning for children of varying ability, the second, with some promising avenues for the classroom teacher.

Section One: Issues and Problems in Planning for Children of Varying Ability

If there is one principle that opens the door to planning for varying ability it is that *as one loves differences, so he nurtures them.*

A much quoted book[6] of the last decade contends that Americans are becoming a nation of conformists, dependent on others for direction and fearful of their own peculiarities. It is common mythology in our society that children should be treated the same in school, judged by the same standards, and required to do the same work.

Yet even if the contrary were true, individuality of itself could not solve the problems of this century. Urban concentration and regional interdependence demand collective action. Problems between races and among regions will yield only to understanding and to willingness to work with persons of divergent viewpoints under most trying circumstances. If the best in individuals is to redound to the benefit of the human race, it is because individuals have what Alan Paton calls "holistic" views of people—views which extend beyond egoistic and parochial concerns and reach out toward all mankind.[7]

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[4] Stone, Tom. "For Whom We Are Planning: The Age in Which Our Children Will Live." *Social Studies for the Middle Grades.* Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, a department of the National Education Association, 1960. p. 30-31.

[5] Klein, Milton M. *Social Studies for the Academically Talented Student in the Secondary School.* Washington: National Education Association, 1960. p. 12.

[6] Riesman, David and others. *The Lonely Crowd.* New Haven: Yale University Press, 1950. 359 p.

In the classroom a basic task is to develop a cooperative spirit which does not eschew criticism or realism. Diversely endowed students need to learn respect for one another while recognizing the fact that they are different. Schools can no longer tolerate a situation where scholars are ridiculed for being scholarly, and slow learners are pushed aside because of their difficulty in learning.

Yet there are too many learners for any faculty to be able to plan a special curriculum for each individual. Rarely can any learner receive more than a few minutes of private supervision each day, even though new experiments in conserving teaching resources may improve this situation. Obviously, what the learner does depends in large part on what he wills to do and on his interest in what the school offers. If learners must be driven to develop their gifts, only a few gifts will be developed, because the development of talent exacts the development of drive and courage and the willingness to work hard and be self-directing.

A major problem in the teaching of the social studies revolves around children from urban slums, particularly children whose academic abilities appear modest. Approximately one-fifth of America's children go to elementary schools in our 16 largest cities and a substantial proportion of this number attend schools which are located in slum areas. These children are the orphans of our culture, as are children in certain rural areas.

In urban schools, the social studies, more than any other school program, bring the values of the lower-class slum culture into contact with American culture as it is assumed to be. That contact, until now, has resulted primarily in conflict. Despite the efforts of educational sociologists to point out this fact and to develop techniques for identifying talent withiin these subcultures, the schools have failed to a large extent. They have failed not only in identifying talents but even in retaining their influence over these children.

The authors here can do little more than point up these questions:

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[7] Paton, Alan. *The Land and People of South Africa.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1955. 143 p.

How can the values of American education be brought to bear on the culture of these children without simply threatening children? Can the school program be so constructed that the children will be strengthened sufficiently during school hours to improve abilities and attitudes developed by their own subculture?

It is urgent that these issues be decided in the elementary school years, for programs for older children have resulted largely in failure. It remains for the elementary schools to help boys and girls develop a desirable life orientation and to construct a school program in which that orientation can be understood through example and habit.

Some Problems of the Classroom Teacher

Despite experimentation with team teaching and non-graded school organization, provisions for children of varying ability have been largely the product of the resourcefulness of the individual classroom teacher.

The Teacher Needs Help in Curriculum Development

In diversifying instruction, a teacher needs to ask these questions:

"How will my plans for a student be followed up in the future?"

"If I have different children doing different things and progressing at varying rates, how will continuity and sequence be provided for them later on?"

"What are the core ideas, values, and ways of knowing in the social studies that must be developed for all children, regardless of the particular content they study individually?"

Planning should be such that the students' activities lead somewhere. It is not enough for a teacher to "enrich" the program for the more able and "remedy" the difficulties of the less able. He must instead help gifted children extend their knowledge and independent thinking skills, and he must also aid the less able to learn minimal understandings for adequate citizenship.

The identification of essential content for the slow child has received more attention than content for the gifted. Nevertheless, some noteworthy possibilities for gifted children have been proposed.

Bruner has suggested that the structure and methods of the sciences can be learned by young children. Transferring this idea to the social sciences means seeking ways that the child can gather and analyze data at his own level, much as would the social scientist.

> That the method of discovery need not be limited to such highly formalized subjects as mathematics and physics is illustrated by some experimentation on social studies carried out by the Harvard Cognition Project.

> A sixth-grade class, having been through a conventional unit on the social and economic geography of the South-eastern states, was introduced to the North Central region by being asked to locate the major cities of the area on a map containing physical features and natural resources but no place names. The resulting class discussion very rapidly produced a variety of plausible theories concerning the requirements of a city—a water transportation theory that placed Chicago at the junction of the three lakes, a mineral resources theory that placed it near the Mesabi range, a food-supply theory that put a great city on the rich soil of Iowa, and so on. The level of interest as well as the level of conceptual sophistication was far above that of control classes. Most striking, however, was the attitude of children to whom, for the first time, the location of a city appeared as a problem, and one to which an answer could be discovered by taking thought. Not only was there pleasure and excitement in the pursuit of a question, but in the end the discovery was worth making, at least for urban children for whom the phenomenon of the city was something that had before been taken for granted.[8]

If the gifted in particular are led to gather and analyze data as in the sample above, they may learn many of the fundamental ideas of the social disciplines. Much of the data they use will have to be "live" data that they, themselves, collect. By analyzing the concrete problems of their local community, for instance, they can develop ideas which they can apply to data gathered by reading about far-flung places. Such a procedure can develop the problem solving abilities—and confidence in those abilities—that can be used throughout a lifetime. If the methods and structures of the social sciences become the goals and results of instruction, students will master the content of the social studies, content which becomes outmoded as time passes, and develop techniques for understanding and attacking the social problems of the future.

The Teacher Needs Research To Guide Him

There is insufficient research to guide the classroom teacher in providing for individual talents. Several studies have indicated that efforts to individualize instruction can improve student progress but the factors responsible for this improvement have by no means been isolated.[9,10]

Three promising kinds of studies are in process—studies of creativity, of cognition and of the teaching act. Forthcoming reports from such researchers as Hughes, Smith, Bellack, Getzells, Torrance, Flanders, Bruner, and Schwab should result in a more nearly adequate theory than we now have.

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[8] Bruner, *op. cit.*, p. 21-22.

[9] Jones, Daisy M. "An Experiment in Adaptation to Individual Differences." *Journal of Educational Psychology* 39: 257-72; May 1958.

[10] Rehage, Kenneth J. "A Comparison of Pupil-Teacher Planning and Teacher-Directed Procedures in Eighth Grade Social Studies Classes." *Journal of Educational Research* 45: 111-15; February 1951.

Another promising research development is the cooperation of subject matter specialists and educators in large-scale demonstration projects to identify basic concepts and generalizations and to develop new instructional materials. While efforts in the social studies have not been as extensive as those in science, mathematics, and foreign languages, several studies are underway that should guide social studies teachers. Noteworthy are the joint project of the National Council for the Social Studies and the American Council of Learned Societies, the Committee of the National Council for Geographic Education, the California Central Committee on Social Studies, and the National Task Force on Economic Education.

Social studies teachers also will look forward to the results of Senesh's experiment in Elkhart, Indiana, testing the hypothesis that fundamental theoretical relationships in economics can be taught at all grade levels. Three filmstrips for first and second grades are now completed. ASCD's *Human Variability and Learning* is a valuable collection of research for the teacher who is planning for children of varying ability.[11]

The Teacher Needs Teaching Materials

The age has passed when a nation could, with good conscience, send teachers to their classrooms with a few bland, over-simplified textbooks, a couple of maps, and a set of encyclopedias and expect adequate instruction and learning to follow.

One good way of teaching the social studies seems to be through the organization of units centered around significant generalizations and social processes and so diversified in method that children of varying ability can learn of the many resources and ideas crucial to life in our modern world. Good teachers use their ingenuity to produce materials they need or to search out and gather materials from widely scattered sources. They search the catalogs of industry and government. Most of what they unearth is suitable only for the very able reader.

Teachers will have to continue developing and searching for new materials, and school libraries and materials centers will have to be expanded to many times their present size. The school without the budget and the staff to order and produce materials is an obsolete school. The issues here facing the profession are:

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[11] *Human Variability and Learning.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a department of the National Education Association, 1961. 88 p.

1. Will the public provide the funds necessary for the production, development, and procurement of adequate materials?
2. Will the profession provide an effective communications system for producing and distributing new materials developed by classroom teachers and specialists?

School administrators must not only assume their share of responsibility for providing needed instructional resources but also see that the resources are made quickly available to teachers and students. The practice, for instance, of ordering all audio-visual materials at one time in the year should be discontinued and replaced with a flexible and efficient ordering system. Books should be cataloged and school librarians provided to help students locate information. In this connection, a school library which is available to a given class for only one period a week is an unlamented product of a bygone era. New means may have to be found for storing books, but free access must be provided. The gifted child, particularly, needs ready access to materials so that he can pursue individual studies which his fellows are not ready to follow.[12]

The Teacher Has Problems of Time and Organization

Searching out materials, developing new units, keeping up with world affairs, and building one's own scholarly background are time-consuming. But, in addition, to plan effectively for varying abilities the teacher must arrange materials and study guides for several groups each day in several curriculum areas and confer with individual students and small groups. To attempt all this and be expected also to meet classes for five to six hours each day is beyond the limits of human endurance. These are matters which are in urgent need of re-examination. New plans of school organization are being developed in several school systems so that teachers can assume their professional functions with the necessary vigor and care.

Problems in Organizing Class Groups

Within each school children are organized in instructional groups. In many schools the grouping has been organized as nearly as possible according to homogeneous abilities. Within graded structures, non-promotion and acceleration have also affected instructional organization.

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[12] Sanders, David C. *Elementary Education and the Academically Talented Pupil.* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1961. p. 58.

While non-promotion appears to interfere with both social and academic progress, evidence concerning the effects of acceleration, although not clear-cut, is quite to the contrary. The evidence indicates that most children who are accelerated suffer no maladjustment and that *moderate* acceleration encourages scholastic and social growth. Also, it helps some of the most able students to work closer to their capacity.[13]

The chief defect in acceleration practices is that they rest on the assumption that there are a series of rungs on the academic ladder, each one of which is more difficult than the last, and that acceleration helps match the learner to the rung. Unless it is accompanied by intensive effort to help the student study challenging problems and serious content, acceleration represents only a partial solution to the problem of developing the gifted person.

The chief problem in homogeneous grouping is that there appear to be no criteria by which instructional groups can be made sufficiently homogeneous to reduce appreciably the problems of instruction. One can narrow the range of reading abilities, but the spread of abilities and achievements in other curriculum areas remains barely disturbed.

Unquestionably, *one can reduce the range of ability or achievement in a given narrow sphere,* but this reduction *does not relieve the school of the necessity of utilizing other plans for dealing with varying ability.* Where homogeneous groups are gathered, they should be temporary and utilized only in activities where that type of homogeneity is critical to the functioning of the instructional group. Where the social studies are concerned, homogeneous grouping will not permit uniform instructional procedures, because the skills and experiences necessary in the social studies are too complex to be reduced markedly by criteria of ability or achievement.

The Nongraded School and Team Teaching

Nongraded school organization is the most important widespread new pattern of vertical organization developed during the last decade. The nongraded plans attempt to remove grade barriers to achievement by organizing schools so children can progress at their own varying individual rates and be easily moved from one group of learners to another.[14]

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[13] *Ibid.*, p. 80-34.

[14] Goodlad and Anderson, *op. cit.*

In some places cooperative and team-teaching arrangements have been attempted to reorganize the horizontal structure of the school, to redefine the teacher's role, and to permit teachers with varying academic and other strengths to work with children of varying abilities. One such arrangement calls for three teachers, representing in major academic strengths the humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences and mathematics, to be assigned about 75 children. The teachers group the children variously for instruction in these areas. Sometimes one teacher works with all 75 children, thereby freeing the other two for curriculum planning, parent-teacher-child conferences, and the like.

Part-Time Special Classes

The possibilities for developing scholarly work for gifted children in part-time special classes are so great that this provision needs more emphasis than it has had. Ideas for the use of part-time and full-time special classes for the gifted have been proposed, several of which have built-in plans for evaluation. There is considerable evidence that the able child is not harmed socially if he is removed from his regular classes for part of each day and week.[15]

Special-Class Social Studies for the Less Talented

There is need for experimentation with less able children, particularly children from lower-class families, in part-time special classes built around a social studies core. Such classes can provide opportunities to use an experience-text approach to remedial reading in which children's experiences are used to prepare materials. At the same time they can make it possible to develop the social skills and knowledge necessary to economic and political competence. Too often special classes for the less able concentrate on arithmetic and reading skills. If they were built around a social studies core, they might provide opportunities for the development of more interesting class sessions and reduce the atmosphere of "remedial drill" which so easily prevails in the special class.

The Use of Foreign Languages

Classes for the academically able, which use a foreign language social studies core can challenge and extend the understanding of these students.

In the upper grades, language instruction can lead to cross-cultural studies of other nations and our own. Spanish, as the language of Latin America, probably is the best of the Western European languages from a social studies point of view, but it is a mistake to limit such instruction to the languages of Western Europe. The Oriental languages provide a good opportunity for the study of far-flung cultures which are different from our own,[16] although it is difficult to study these cultures before children are familiar with others more similar to our own.[17]

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[15] Norris, Dorothy E. "Programs in the Elementary Schools." *Education for the Gifted.* Fifty-Seventh Yearbook, Part II. Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education, 1958. p. 222-62.

Section Two: Promising Avenues for the Classroom Teacher

Many recent children's books have opened up new possibilities for scholarship by children of all talents but especially by the better reader. Several of the recent books about newly formed nations have candidly portrayed social problems. Audio-visual materials also have been developed which provide information over an increasing spectrum of problems and content.

A Study of Africa: A Special Project for the Talented

Special projects can be planned for the talented, for interest groups, and for the retarded. By a special project is not meant the temporary activity of a child set off by passing interest but rather an enterprise planned by teacher and children to gain a depth understanding of important concepts and generalizations in which the child gathers, organizes, and reports data and comes to conclusions about the significance of those data.[18]

As yet, the effective study of Africa depends very much on good reading ability. Through literature, the gifted child—better able to think through less concrete illustrations than are his more nearly average age peers—can attack many of the problems of new and old African nations.

A special project can begin in many ways. For instance, one widely used sixth grade social studies text suggests that one of the advantages of South Africa is the "plentiful supply of *cheap native labor.*" (Italics added.) Talented children should learn to question statements like this. To put it mildly, such questioning can be followed by showing the *Life Magazine* film strip,[19] which is highly critical of the native's economic and political plight, and then comparing it with the filmstrip prepared by the Union of South Africa, whch presents a picture of harmony and racial equality.[20] Subsequent planning can lead to a study of the reasons for the opposing points of view expressed in the films. Materials abound for this study.

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[16] Chinese-Mandarin alone is spoken by 460 million persons.

[17] Kenworthy, Leonard S. *Introducing Children to the World.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956. 268 p.

[18] See the Contra Costa, California County Social Studies Grade 3 Curriculum Guide, *A Study in Comparative Communities,* for helpful suggestions. Hilda Taba and John Robinson of San Francisco State College were the consultants.

John Gunther's story, "Meet the Congo, and Its Neighbors,"[21] discusses the colonies and new nations, their economic development, and the place of the native in the economy. Alan Paton's *Land and People of South Africa* discusses the moral issues involved in the relation of the people to the land and to each other. Arna Bontemps' *Story of the Negro* vividly traces the history of the Negro and his place in societies now and in the past. *Children of South Africa* and *Children of North Africa,* both by T. Stinetorf, treat home and village life especially. Students may explore similarities and differences between their lives and those of the African children, as well as similarities between colonies and nations and the relations between the nations of the several continents. Through Ida Epstein's *The First Book of the United Nations* these children can study one kind of relationship among nations. Newspapers and weekly digests of the news, such as *Scholastic* and the *Weekly Reader* are sources of current data. From publications like the United Nations' *Report on the World Social Situation* the teacher can prepare abstracts of data which children can use. Similarly, he can digest for them information from books like Gunther's *Inside Africa* and *The White Nile* by Alan Moorehead.[22]

Filmstrips like *Profile of Nigeria,*[23] made since the independence of that new nation, can make more real the physical interior of the African nations. From source lists children can find many sources to write for materials on the products, histories, and politics of these countries. The embassies in Washington are also prepared with educational materials. For example, the French Embassy has prepared pamphlets on each of the former French colonies which has recently become independent. Texts and encyclopedias provide thumbnail sketches of these nations and many of their problems. Most encyclopedias for children are revised frequently and are relatively fresh sources.

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[19] Filmstrip: "South Africa and Its Problem." *Life Magazine,* 1951.

[20] Filmstrip: "Union of South Africa, the Other U.S.A." Government Information Office of the Union of South Africa, Bronxville, New York: Audio-Visual Associates, 1954.

[21] Gunther, John. *Inside Africa.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1953. 892 p.

[22] Moorehead, Alan. *The White Nile.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960. 385 p.

[23] Filmstrip: "Profile of Nigeria." New York: Teaching Aids Service, 1960.

If materials like the above are gathered together, the talented upper-grade youngster can engage in a remarkably high level of scholarship. Helping him to do this is a difficult job, however, involving several complex teaching tasks. Basic to all of these tasks is the selection of the content, the concepts to be learned.

1. Help children understand what they need to learn. In the case of Africa goals need to be especially clear. For example, after contrasting the sunny picture of the filmstrip produced by the South Africa Information Agency with the unhappy picture presented by *Life's* filmstrip, the children might decide:
   a. If gold and diamonds dominate the economy of Africa
   b. What position the Negro really occupies
   c. How the economy and racial situation in South Africa compare with other African countries.

   After some work, re-planning might include comparisons of African life with life in the United States of America, as the search for available data should have unearthed information about social life and institutions.
2. Help children identify ways of collecting and analyzing data. Sources of books, names and addresses of embassies, and resource persons need to be identified by the teacher. As much as possible, however, these gifted children, themselves, should contact sources and gather information. In this activity they should be held to a high standard, partly so that they may not inconvenience sources with badly worded requests.
3. Help children evaluate their progress—spotting strengths and weaknesses in procedures and in thinking through conclusions. Early in the African study, for example, they may conclude that the white man still rules most Africans. The teacher can lead them to sources which will help them obtain a fuller picture. They may also be influenced by the stereotypes that Africa is a jungle or that the African native is a cultureless, uncivilized man.

   A common procedural error of children is to over-use the encyclopedia to the neglect of other sources. They need help here, especially in finding where to write for information and how to use audio-visual devices.
4. Help children apply the results of their work, either to develop a means of conveying information and ideas to others, or of checking their conclusions against the work of someone else and against previous work of their own. Sophisticated children can debate such issues as the formation of an African federation. A "Special Projects Group" might compare an African nation's family life, homes, schools, or form of government with those of its own community.

Special projects can be developed for learners of all talents. Part-time special classes can be built around the projects or they can be started by interests or planned in advance by the teacher. The less able the youngster, the more immediate and concrete should be the project. For example, the city child can easily gather data about city transportation by observation and by conversation with resource persons.

A more structured type of special project can be organized through development of study guides. Chase[24] has provided a thorough discussion of the uses of the study guide with learners of varying ability. For the slower learners, it can take the form of an experience-chart of questions to be answered or ideas to be explored. For the more skillful learner, it can be a study plan in his notebook. The purpose of the study guide is to provide a list of questions which can guide the selection of resources and the direction of the reading involved. The "questions guide" can be given a child when he begins the study of a particular country and, after he has completed some initial reading, he can develop deeper questions in consultation with the teacher. For instance, after reading Noel Streatfield's *The First Book of England,* which is somewhat superficial but accurate, the student with the aid of the teacher might draw up guide questions with which he could attack readings in the encyclopedia or in Alicia Street's *The Land of the English People* or *The Key to London.* Children using guides such as these can pursue independent work which leads to more complicated study guides and projects dealing with relationships among countries.

Colonial Life—Individualization Through Depth Study

Depth studies of social content are more sound psychologically then superficial studies, and they provide more possibilities for differentiating instruction. When a class of widely differing youngsters spends several weeks gathering and organizing data about a single topic, it is possible to plan activities for all levels of ability and to collect the concrete examples which all children—particularly the less gifted—need for conceptual growth.

Study of the southeastern United States during colonial and revolutionary days illustrates the quantity of literature available for the able student and the variety of activities for the slower.

For the less talented fourth or fifth grade child, the story of the colonial South can act as a springboard to knowledge of historical figures prominent in the growth of America. Toward this end, some of the slower children might collect, as part of their contributions to this unit, pictures of prominent early citizens and prepare short talks about these men. The famous persons of Jamestown are talked about in *Pocahontas, A Little Indian Girl of Jamestown* by Francis Cavanah, a very simple picture-story book. *The Tricorn Hat Tone*

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[24] Chase, Linwood. "Individual Differences in Classroom Learning." *Social Studies in the Elementary School.* Fifty-Sixth Yearbook, Part II. Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education, 1957. p. 174-83.

Coloring Book by Charles H. Overly can make real some of the places where Thomas Jefferson, Patrick Henry, and George Washington visited, dined, and debated. This same booklet, plus *St. George's Day in Williamsburg* by Edith Thatcher Hurd and Clement Hurd can help the slow reader explore the crafts, products, and markets of Colonial America. With these books and with color slides available from Colonial Williamsburg, Incorporated, and the Henry Francis DuPont Winterthur Museum in Greenville, Delaware, the slower child can learn a great deal about colonial life and people despite reading handicaps.

This same unit on the colonial South can lead to a study by the gifted pupil of reasons for the American Revolution or a comparison of colonial and modern industry.

Depth studies of many topics provide similar activities. A fourth grade class in a New Jersey town gathered information from dentists about the benefits of fluoridation, summarized the information, and sent copies to their parents. The study of teeth was accomplished by the slow students through films and models and simple references; the interview schedules were carefully prepared by the more gifted.

A Primary Unit on Folk Tales

Folk tales are a familiar topic of study in the elementary school, and basic readers and picture story books abound with them. Folk tales may be used to introduce young children to the peoples and ideas of many lands. Folk tales are fanciful rather than factual and frequently contain the human elements so often missing in the ordinary social studies books about people of another nation or time.

A large number of carefully selected folk tales should be available either in picture-story book form or in anthologies that the teacher or children can read. Tales can be found to use both with talented and with relatively slow children to expand their social studies knowledge and to lead them to new reading.

For the able readers, Eileen O'Faolain's *Irish Sagas and Folk Tales* (ages 8-14) is a readable collection that can be used with James Reeves' *English Fables and Fairy Stories* to explore similarities between the two. While both use magical means to provide happy endings for their participants, the recurrence of the leprechaun and the pot of gold in Irish folklore provides a logical beginning for the study. It will introduce the children to many Irish stories not generally known in this country and the familiar tales of the Irish struggling against a poor country compares interestingly with the solid comfort of the English middle-class settings in the English collection.

For the less able children, Harcourt's editions of the Grimm Brothers' *Sleeping Beauty* (ages 6-10), *The Traveling Musicians* (ages 4-8), and *The Wolf and the Seven Little Kids* (ages 4-8), are readable and filled with excellent illustrations which help the child dig out the meanings of the words. These children might be helped through these tales by the teacher and then might listen to a different version of the same stories, such as appear in Walck's 1955 edition. Comparing and contasting the two versions, and then illustrating the differences, make an interesting exercise in creative thinking that is easily guided because the illustrations pick up the stories so well.

For both extremes of ability, familiarity with authors' names and countries can be accomplished when making the mural and its labels, and the entire unit activity should lead to the understanding of the many sources of literature.

Some of the collections of tales from around the world provide rich subject matter and, perhaps, a starting point for gifted children to look up further information about these nations. Looking up information to see how the stories reflect the living conditions of their countries is as tough an activity as ever challenged a bright child. For the less able, basal readers include many fine folk tales so that social studies can be the source of directed reading activities. Children, too, can deal with this content in a conceptual way by comparing the supernatural characters they find in the stories.

THE INTEGRATION OF KNOWLEDGE

An unresolved question in pedagogy asks whether knowledge in different curriculum areas is related sufficiently that through the study of topics in one area curriculum objectives in other areas can be achieved.

This question is too complex for adequate discussion here. However, it should be stated that the following discussion is based on the assumption that many of the objectives of one curriculum area can be reinforced through the study of other areas, provided that the instructional program is well organized.

Let us consider some of the implications and illustrations of this assumption, particularly, as they concern opportunities for differentiation of instruction in curriculum areas other than the social studies.

Reading and the Social Studies

School children studying almost any social studies topic will consult many books of varying degrees of difficulty. Their search for information also will involve skills at many levels.

Not only locational skills and the use of references can be taught in connection with social studies but word-recognition and meaning skills as well. Learning about a new topic in social studies nearly always involves teaching new words. Reading which provides opportunities to compare sources and complex ideas and to apply previously learned ideas to new situations makes a contribution to the development of thinking skills.

For the advanced student, social studies references offer opportunities to check the reliability of sources and to learn how to detect propaganda and bias. For example, in the study of South Africa these opportunities are provided by the two resource filmstrips mentioned earlier, one produced by *Life Magazine* in 1950 and the other by the South Africa Information Service in 1955. The former emphasized the social implications of apartheid, the conflict between the races, and the plight of the Negro; the latter emphasized the prosperity of the land and the harmony between the races. Such a contrast offers a challenge, particularly to the more able student, to understand the distinctions between points of view and the techniques used to present them. Here, also, is the basis for a week's reading for the fast reading group.

Follow-up readings to explore topics more fully and resolve unanswered questions open up new horizons in reading for all children in an integrated program. In the study of Colonial New England, for instance, the advanced reader could be lead to Esther Forbes' stirring and informative *Johnny Tremaine*. For other advanced readers, Holling Clancy Hollings' hauntingly beautiful *Seabird* might lead to a study of the whaling industry as well as offer a beautiful piece of literature. In the same unit of study, the slow reader will find high interest and accurate information in A. M. Anderson's *Squanto and the Pilgrims.*

Study of the functions of waterways in Colonial America might find another able reader examining Fon Boardman's *Canals,* which in turn could result in the scholarly activity involved in determining the relative importance of waterways through the ages.

The charming whimsy of Robert Lawson's *Ben and Me* is available to the reader of high caliber and Ronald Syme's *John Smith of Virginia* to the average reader in their study of famous men. Ingri and Edgar d'Aulaire's *George Washington* suits a below average reader. A series of books by Clara Ingram Judson can be used in the same study.

Social studies and science projects offer so many opportunities for extending reading interests that it is difficult to imagine an independent reading program in which they do not play a large part in book selection.

Arithmetic and the Social Studies

How can the social studies program increase knowledge of arithmetic? Most obvious, probably, are the opportunities for application of arithmetic to everyday problems. The use of charts and graphs in making reports involves many skills that can challenge the talented. Kits which recently have been made available allow the gifted to make analog and circuit computer models which lead to the advanced study of mathematics, proportion, technology, and electric circuitry. For all pupils, and especially for the less talented, the study of the community throughout elementary school years will offer opportunities for the application of numbers in social situations. From the study of the store in primary grades to the study of advertising practices in upper grades, consumer economics provides constant opportunities and challenge in arithmetical skills.

The slow learner needs to be brought toward economic sufficiency. The social studies and mathematics programs, which include the study of jobs and economic institutions, will help him move in this direction throughout the upper grades. Within the same topics, transportation and population problems of modern society offer complex mathematics problems to challenge the gifted.

Reading and arithmetic have been used to show that social studies can provide opportunities to extend instruction in other curriculum areas. But the opportunities are not confined to reading and arithmetic; they exist for other curriculum areas as well.

The converse is also true. Activities nominally planned for learnings in science, arithmetic, and reading can be utilized to further understanding in the social studies.

The reading of *The Brahmin and the Tiger,* for instance, can set some advanced students off on the study of India or Far Eastern religions, topics which also involve important social attitudes. Similarly, reading Margaret Leighton's *Hands Across the Sky* reinforces many ideas about the interdependence of man and the impact of technological change on daily life.

In arithmetic the study of the number system can, of course, lead to the study of the history of numbers and the exploration of similar topics. The study of money and its uses affords reinforcement of ideas pertaining to the institutions and services of modern communities.

Similarly, in science there are many topics of high significance which can reinforce or extend social knowledge and skills. Famous figures in science lived in every age. The study of their lives is a concrete approach for the slower child and forms a core of knowledge of history for the gifted. The study of the uses of science in our lives also reinforces concepts of contemporary society.

SOME GUIDELINES

From the foregoing discussion, several guidelines may be drawn:

1. Opportunities for wide differentiation of instruction exist in the classroom if instruction in each curriculum area is related to instruction in other areas.
2. Development of learner responsibility and initiative-qualities too rarely seen in today's schools is a first order of business. "On their own in learning" is a key idea.
3. The development of appreciation for scholarship and cooperation begins early. Children become accustomed to the fact that the burden of learning is on them, that the teacher is a guide and leader but cannot do the learning for them. They must be made responsible for knowing what they are about at all times and, above all, for asking for help when it is necessary. These facts should be established very early in the school experience of every child. Like so many kinds of learning, developing independence requires the freedom to make mistakes, and many trials are necessary before it is mastered. And if student cooperation and responsibility are keys to planning for varying abilities—and we believe they are —then these mistakes are very much a part of the process.
4. Peaks of learning in one area develop essentials in other areas. As a learner develops his talents in one type of endeavor, he probably will accomplish minimum learnings in others. If a child digs deeply into the study of one European country, he will learn much about others as well.
5. The climate of the school is important to scholarship and should say to the child, "We respect you!" "We respect learning!" "Be responsible!" "Be critical!"
6. The school climate also contributes to the psychological support of the student. Real scholarship demands a foundation of emotional health because it forces the perceptive student to give up the security of old ideas, to change or exchange them for newer ideas, and continually to seek new knowledge. Scholarship which results from cooperative effort also demands the critical examination of ideas, which can take place only in an atmosphere of mutual support.
7. A basic task in developing programs for the able student is not acceleration per se but rather the provision of more complex and difficult learning tasks than would otherwise be the case. Failure in this objective was illustrated recently for the authors by a sixth grade class which had selected Hawaii as the subject of an instructional unit. The children decided that the major cities should be enumerated and discussed, the topography mapped, and other topics of the country's geography ex-

plored. In concluding the unit, the children wrote reports on the topics selected and made murals of the volcanoes. Each of these tasks was well done and the children obviously knew what they were doing; but unfortunately none of the children extended his new knowledge to more complex ideas by using Hawaii as an example of a multi-race, native-modern society which has successfully fitted into the modern political and technological world. The unit failed in developing new skills or in leading the children to deeper ways of looking at a culture.

8. Wherever possible, children should be led to reason as does the social scientist and, consequently, to discover the structure of social science. Thus, the child who studies the Eskimo should be taught how to compare him to other societies, to find out about families in various societies, and to compare their functions. If this seems too advanced, consider the first grader who corresponds, at first, via experience-chart, with a French child and discovers that their families are alike in certain ways, they both like pets, need money, and are nagged about making their bed.

Conclusion

As in so many areas of educational concern, planning for children of varying ability is presently made on an inadequate research base. Research has not yet indicated as clearly as it might how desirable climates for learning can be created. Analysis is needed of the factors which contribute to the development of group norms which facilitate habits of independence and responsibility. Too little is known about how to establish the "climate of excellence and of scholarship."

Research in team teaching and nongraded plans are underway at this writing, as are studies of special classes for the gifted and retarded. Also noteworthy are the studies of creativity, cognition, and the teaching act, as well as the large-scale studies now underway in the various social science disciplines.

If we are to help the gifted, slow, and other unique children discover the structure of the social sciences, we need careful analyses of these areas of knowledge. To help children learn accurate and concrete information, we need to know more about the structure of the social sciences and the kinds of data children can best use in solving social problems. This is as important in teaching the slower child as it is in helping the gifted. The slow child needs more concrete experience than does the quick, and he is more limited in his ability to generalize and in the academic tools he brings to any study. However, the instructional job is still to help him think as accurately and as powerfully as he is able.

This chapter has attempted to trace problems and issues in planning for children of varying ability and to suggest some promising avenues for teaching these children. The major assumptions of the chapter have been that planning for diversity is accomplished mostly through teaching children to be responsible and independent and through creating a school atmosphere in which critical thinking, co-operation, self-criticism, and love of scholarship and excellence are paramount. These tasks, we believe, are more basic to planning for diversity than any amount of diversified assignments, for they are the basis out of which diversified learning tasks grow.

When one thinks of uniqueness in academic ability or in social skills, he cannot help thinking that uniqueness is not confined to those students who reside at either end of the spectra of aptitude or sociability. In short, he must conclude that the "average" person is unique too, and planning for varying ability means planning for the varying interests, skills, and talents of the ordinary child. In fact, one may doubt whether there is any such thing as an ordinary child. If talent is conceived as an amalgum of abilities, interests, skills, and knowledges, then diversity in talent cannot be confined to diversity of academic talent alone. Planning for varying ability, then, means planning for everyone.

CHAPTER X

Evaluation of Learning in the Social Studies

J. Wayne Wrightstone

EVALUATION of the social studies in elementary schools should be based upon the concept that multiple learnings develop simultaneously during a social studies experience. If the pupil is studying a unit on housing, for example, it is assumed that his experience in visiting a housing project or reading about housing in a reference book may at one and the same time influence growth in his information, his social attitudes, his interests, his work and study skills, his powers of critical thinking, and his personal and social adaptability. In order to facilitate these multiple learnings in pupils, the instructional program should be planned and administered on a basis wherein the pupil helps to determine not only the objectives but also the materials and methods of instruction for a topic in the social studies. This requires cooperative pupil-teacher planning of an outline and activities for each topic.

In order to assess the multiple learnings of pupils, the teacher and supervisor should have a blueprint for comprehensive evaluation in the social studies. Some of the tests and measures will be standardized and administered periodically. Other methods of appraisal will be informal and will be used daily by the teacher as part and parcel of the instructional process.

COMPREHENSIVE PROGRAM OF EVALUATION IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Evaluation in the social studies involves primarily the gathering of evidence to estimate the degree to which pupils and teachers are achieving social studies objectives. Evaluation involves, first, the formulation of major objectives such as (1) acquiring social studies facts, concepts, and generalizations, (2) developing desirable social and civic interests, attitudes, and appreciations, (3) showing skill in

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This chapter was reviewed by Howard B. Anderson, State Teachers College at Towson, Baltimore, Maryland; Wilbur E. Apgar, Jersey City State College, Jersey City, New Jersey; Ralph N. Grover, State University Teachers College, Plattsburgh, New York; and Lloyd N. Smith, Indiana State College, Terre Haute, Indiana.

handling social studies facts, concepts, and generalizations, and (4) increasing powers of critical interpretation of social studies data.

Evaluation involves also the use of formal tests and measures, as well as informal essays, quizzes, reports, observation, and anecdotal records which reveal pupil growth toward each major objective. The use of formal and informal appraisal data helps the teachers to guide the development and growth of each pupil into a democratic personality. Since evaluation begins with the objectives of the social studies curriculum, it shows clearly the educational and social values which the teacher and supervisor are striving to develop.

EVALUATION OF CONCEPTS, ATTITUDES, AND SKILLS

It is assumed that most elementary schools have defined major objectives of the social studies program. Since no person can be an effective citizen without knowledge of facts, concepts, and generalizations, this is a major objective of the social studies. The school will strive to teach each pupil to study the facts in each situation and arrive at conclusions and ways of behaving which will contribute to social progress. The pupil will develop suitable skills in acquiring new knowledge of problems by study. These include abilities in reading, discussing, and listening, as outlined in Chapter VI. The individual will attain, also, historical perspective so that he can make a balanced appraisal of contemporary events, movements, and thoughts in relation to events which have occurred in the past.

The modern elementary social studies program strives to develop desirable social attitudes and beliefs. It strives to teach the pupil so that he will be motivated by democratic attitudes. He should be tolerant and hold to those beliefs fundamental to democracy; namely, freedom of speech, of press, of assembly, and of religion. Furthermore, he will develop these personal and social qualities which will make him a better individual in the school, home, and community.

The modern social studies program in the elementary school will help the pupils to improve their skills in handling social facts, concepts, generalizations, and information in attacking problems. Even at the elementary school level, the teacher can help the pupil to increase his powers of critical interpretation of social studies data and his ability in solving problems, as noted in Chapter VI.

Informal Methods and Tests Are Part of Comprehensive Evaluation

Informal methods and teacher-made tests are a necessary part of social studies evaluation; first, because day-by-day classroom appraisal is of equal or greater importance than standardized tests administered usually not more than once per year; and, second, because standardized tests and published scales are not available for measuring interest, attitudes, and critical thinking at the elementary school level. Many practical suggestions on informal methods of evaluation in the social studies are given in Chapter 5 of the Forty-Fifth Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education, entitled, "The Measurement of Understanding" and distributed by the University of Chicago Press.[1]

Information and understanding may be measured informally by teacher-made tests using multiple choice, true-false, or completion types of test questions. Work-study skills may be assessed informally by observing pupils systematically as they use reference books, dictionaries, and the index of a book and by examining in oral or written form their ability to interpret maps, graphs, charts, and tables in a normal classroom situation.

Powers of thinking may be assessed informally by observing the pupil's ability to draw inferences or to make interpretations of verbal, graphic, and statistical data in specially constructed exercises or in oral and written reports on a social studies topic. In a like manner the ability of pupils to apply social studies concepts and generalizations to specific situations may be observed and examined as a part of regular instruction.

Charts and checklists prepared by the teacher are helpful in assessing pupil abilities, skills, and behavior. The checklist which follows provides an opportunity to assess behavior in a social studies discussion situation.

Charts and checklists similar to the example may be devised by the classroom teacher to meet specific needs. This method of evaluation emphasizes pupil performance, or behavior, rather than academic acquisition of information. All objectives—information, attitudes, interests, social behavior, and critical thinking—are important. Social behavior, however, is most adequately appraised by observational methods. These include checklists, rating scales, and anecdotal records.

Use of social studies terminology may be observed and assessed by the social studies teacher as a part of the day-by-day performance of a child. Does the child know, for example, the meanings of such terms as island, fault, or monarchy? Words in general use take on spe-

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[1] Anderson, Howard R., Elaine Forsyth, and Horace T. Morse. "The Measurement of Understandings in the Social Studies." *The Measurement of Understanding.* Forty-Fifth Yearbook, Part I. Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education, 1946.

Name____________________ Class__________ Date__________

Behavior	All the Time	Most of the Time	Occasion-ally	Never
1. Waits his turn to talk				
2. Talks to the point				
3. Sees another point of view				
4. Offers suggestions to class				
5. Takes share of responsibility				
6. Abides by majority decisions				
Et cetera				

cial meaning in social studies. Bull Run becomes a noun (stream), whereas it was a verb when the child met it first in his reader. In social studies, a person of note, may involve a different meaning of *note* than the child had previously acquired when a note was regarded, or defined, as a message. In social studies, teachers should assess the ability of children to know the multiple meanings of terms when they are used in a social studies context as compared with general use of the terms, or words. This appraisal may be accomplished by oral tests as well as written tests of such words in context of a sentence or paragraph.

Methods of Evaluating Concepts

In the evaluation of growth in information, concepts, and generalizations, the teacher will use formal and informal techniques of appraisal. The formal techniques will include standardized tests which are appropriate to the curriculum as well as to the maturity of the pupils. Published tests and scales are available for measuring some aspects of information and understanding in history, geography, civics and social studies generally at the elementary school level. Tests of this type include sections of (a) the Stanford and Metropolitan batteries, published by Harcourt Brace and World Company, Tarrytown, New York: (b) the California Achievement series, published by the California Test Bureau, Monterey, California: (c) Iowa Tests of Basic Skills, published by Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, Massachusetts: and (d) the National Achievement series, published by the Acorn Publishing Company, Rockville Center, New York. The most comprehensive listing of tests is provided in the *Mental Measurements Yearbook,* edited by Oscar K. Buros.[2] These tests need to be checked against the curricular content to assure the user that they are valid measures of the facts and skills being taught. Current affairs tests are published by organizations which distribute weekly current events papers. (See Chapter V for a detailed list.)

Methods of Evaluating Skills

Skills as they are usually defined for testing and appraisal purposes are defined as ability to read maps, graphs, charts, and tables; to use a table of contents and the index of a social studies book, and to find items of information in reference books or similar sources.

Cartoons and selected photographs, also, provide a basis for evaluating attitudes, skills of interpretation, and powers of inference. The cartoon, especially lends itself to gaining insights about social and civic attitudes. Since the cartoon represents a systhesis of facts and opinions, it affords opportunities to appraise some aspects of critical thinking.

Similar types of test exercises are available in standard tests for these and other skills in social studies. Informal test exercises may be devised by the teacher or may be found in the Scholastic Magazines tests for *News Trails, News Explorer,* or *News Time* which are published three times each year as a service of these weekly magazines for elementary school pupils.

Methods of Evaluating Attitudes and Interests

Under the general category of attitudes, this discussion will include interests and personal-social adaptability of the pupils. Adequate measurement of achievement of these important, but relatively intangible, objectives is very difficult. There are few formal or standardized measures or techniques which will be valid in many situations. For this reason the informal techniques of evaluation such as observation, writing of anecdotal records, rating-scales and check-lists, frequently provide the evidence which teachers use in making judgments about the growth and development of the children. The subjective nature of these devices must be recognized. In appraising attitudes, values and feelings, the Remmers' multipurpose scales, such as "A Scale for Measuring Attitude Toward Any School Subject" may be of some value.

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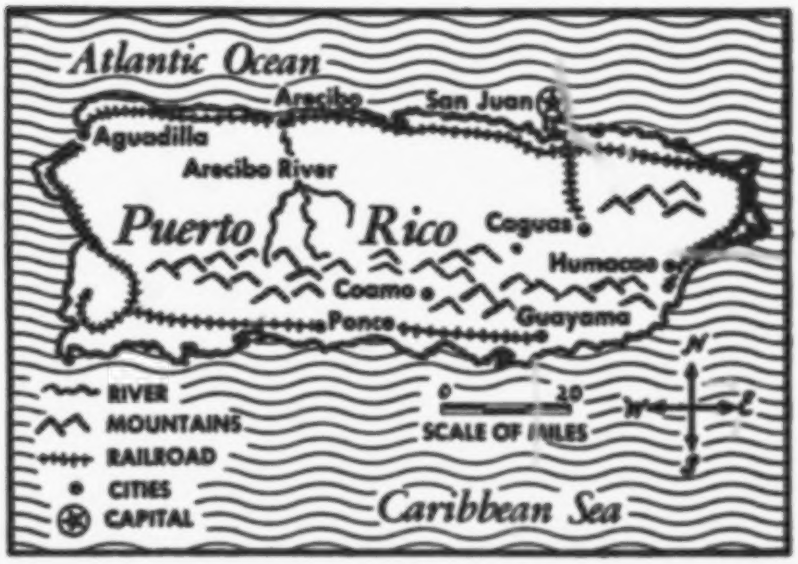
[2] The most recent publication is Buros, Oscar K., editor. *The Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook.* Highland Park, New Jersey: Gryphon Press, 1959.

Illustration of Map Reading Skills


Atlantic Ocean
Arecibo
San Juan
Aguadilla
Arecibo River
Puerto Rico
Caguas
Humacao
Coamo
Ponce
Guayama
N
W
E
S
RIVER
MOUNTAINS
RAILROAD
CITIES
CAPITAL
0
20
SCALE OF MILES
Caribbean Sea

1. The river on this map flows:
   - ☐ A. south
   - ☐ B. west
   - ☐ C. east
   - ☐ D. north
2. A city in the mountains is:
   - ☐ A. San Juan
   - ☐ B. Humacao
   - ☐ C. Coamo
   - ☐ D. Guayama
3. The circled star means that San Juan:
   - ☐ A. is on a river
   - ☐ B. is on a railroad
   - ☐ C. is a mountain city
   - ☐ D. is the capital city
4. To fly across Puerto Rico from east to west, you would cover about:
   - ☐ A. 39 miles
   - ☐ B. 114 miles
   - ☐ C. 20 miles
   - ☐ D. 200 miles
5. A city that is on a peninsula is:
   - ☐ A. Arecibo
   - ☐ B. San Juan
   - ☐ C. Guayama
   - ☐ D. Humacao
6. Puerto Rico is:
   - ☐ A. an island
   - ☐ B. a continent
   - ☐ C. a peninsula
   - ☐ D. an archipelago
7. Puerto Rico's railroad follows the coast because:
   - ☐ A. Puerto Rico is a small country
   - ☐ B. there are few highways along the coast
   - ☐ C. the coastal lands are flat
   - ☐ D. people like to ride near the seashore

8. Most of Puerto Rico's sugar cane fields are:
   - ☐ A. on the east coast
   - ☐ B. between Coamo and Humacao
   - ☐ C. on the south coast
   - ☐ D. north of the mountains

9. To send goods from Caguas to a big seaport, you might send them:
   - ☐ A. to Guayamo
   - ☐ B. over the mountains
   - ☐ C. by river boat
   - ☐ D. by railroad

10. A city located at the mouth of a river is:
    - ☐ A. Caguas
    - ☐ B. Aguadilla
    - ☐ C. Arecibo
    - ☐ D. San Juan

Illustration of Using Sources of Information

1. Suppose a friend invited you to visit him at his home in Juneau, Alaska. You want to write him a letter saying you'll come. You can find the correct form for writing your letter in:
   - ☐ A. a dictionary
   - ☐ B. a speller
   - ☐ C. an encyclopedia
   - ☐ D. an English book

2. Suppose a movie about Alaska is shown in your city. You decide to see this movie before you make your trip. You can find the name and address of the theater where the movie is shown in:
   - ☐ A. a movie magazine
   - ☐ B. a local newspaper
   - ☐ C. a world almanac
   - ☐ D. a book about movie stars

3. You plan to travel to Juneau, Alaska, in a direct route by plane. You want to trace the route your plane will take. You look at a:
   - ☐ A. a map of Alaska
   - ☐ B. map of the world
   - ☐ C. map of the U.S.
   - ☐ D. road map

4. You want to show your class that Juneau is nearer to the North Pole than your city is. You use:
   - ☐ A. a newspaper
   - ☐ B. a world almanac
   - ☐ C. a globe
   - ☐ D. a dictionary

5. You want to find the latest population figures for Alaska. You look in:
   - ☐ A. a world almanac
   - ☐ B. an atlas
   - ☐ C. an encyclopedia
   - ☐ D. a history book

6. You want to learn something about the fishing industry in Alaska. You will find the most information in:
   - ☐ A. an encyclopedia
   - ☐ B. a book about fishing
   - ☐ C. a dictionary
   - ☐ D. a geography book

7. While you are reading about the fishing industry, you find a word you never saw before. You can find what the word means and how to say it in:
   - ☐ A. an encyclopedia
   - ☐ B. a geography book
   - ☐ C. a dictionary
   - ☐ D. a magazine

8. To find where the principal cities of Alaska are located, you look in:
   ☐ A. a dictionary ☐ C. an atlas
   ☐ B. a world almanac ☐ D. a history book

9. You would look for the story of the purchase of Alaska by the United States in a:
   ☐ A. geography of the U.S. ☐ C. world almanac
   ☐ B. history of the U.S. ☐ D. dictionary

10. You take a book about Alaska to read on your trip. Before you begin reading, you want to find out quickly what each chapter is about. You look at:
   ☐ A. the title ☐ C. the introduction
   ☐ B. the index ☐ D. the table of contents

In the area of interests there are practically no standard inventories available. In the area of personal-social adaptability there are some standardized self-descriptive personality tests and rating scales. Both of these methods should be used with caution because both self-ratings and ratings by others may contain serious errors of observation and measurement. Even when such measures are used it is wise to supplement the data from them by making systematic observations and anecdotal records of the pupil's behavior. In addition, data may be obtained from sociometric techniques to aid in making more accurate interpretation of the pupil's social behavior and relationships.

Informal Methods of Evaluating Interests and Attitudes

Interests may perhaps be best defined, for purposes of this discussion, as those drives which lead the individual to various preferences in personal efforts and conduct. An informal interest inventory of social studies activities may be used to discover pupil preferences. Sample items are given below:

	L	I	D
(a) To listen to radio news commentators	( )	( )	( )
(b) To read about wars and battles	( )	( )	( )
(c) To read about Indians	( )	( )	( )
(d) To read about trains and railroads	( )	( )	( )

L—mean like; I—means indifferent to; D—means dislike

Another informal technique of evaluation of interests that may be used in the elementary school is a pupil log, or diary, in which the pupil lists the books and pamphlets which are read or consulted on a unit of work. Each pupil may list also the titles of reports he writes and any construction work in which he engages.

Individual beliefs and attitudes toward ideas, persons, and phenomena may be measured by an informal attitude test especially constructed for use with local school children. In such a test the pupil is asked to indicate by + or − whether he agrees or disagrees with such statements as:

( ) The farmer is less happy than the city worker.
( ) Most people in other countries are less bright than Americans.
( ) Chinese, Japanese, and colored people work as hard as white people.
( ) A forest owner should be allowed to cut down as many trees as he likes.

A test of civic beliefs may be constructed so that it allows for expression of attitudes toward various races, customs, and ideas. It may include statements at an elementary level of attitudes developed in the study of topics such as transportation, communications, commerce, farming, food, and housing. Illustrative items are:

( ) Airplane travel will grow less and less.
( ) Space balloons will help communication.
( ) Food surplus from the United States should be shared with less able nations.
( ) The United States Government should help cities to get better houses or apartments for large cities.

These are illustrative items that a teacher might construct to measure attitudes of pupils on a topic, or unit, that is taught in the social studies.

Anecdotal records are a source of informal evaluation data. In compiling anecdotal records, the observer makes notes of sample situations, activities, experiences, and expressions of each pupil for the characteristic or characteristics to be evaluated. Thus, for example, an anecdotal record containing pupil activities defined as self-initiated acts may be illustrated by the following sample:

> John Smith: March 15—Brought in clippings from newspapers on local civic improvements in housing. March 20—Brought in some charts of miles of improved roads in city. Charts were made from a table of figures in a newspaper which he consulted at home. March 23—Made a report on new bus lines in city. Gave data gathered from several newspapers. April 22—Volunteered to act as leader of a class group to investigate recent city council reports on transportation in the city.

From the typical activities listed in this anecdotal record and from general observation of other elementary school pupils it is apparent that John Smith rates high in self-initiated acts. He is developing initiative and independent work habits. Such habits can be evaluated by observational or anecdotal records.

Sociometric techniques are valuable in assessing personal-social adaptability. A common sociometric technique is that involving choice of classmates as friends. This instrument is a friendship-choice blank in which the following two sociometric questions are asked:

1. Who are your best friends in this class? Name one, two, three or more as you like.
2. Whom don't you like so well in this class; students with whom you wouldn't like to associate?

From the pupil responses to these two sociometric questions, it is possible to draw up a table of choices as follows: (a) pupils chosen by each pupil as friends, (b) pupils choosing other pupils as friends, (c) mutual choices as friends, (d) pupils rejecting other pupils as friends, and (e) pupils rejected by other pupils as friends.

Another sociometric method involves choosing classmates who are naturally suited for roles in class plays. This device is a variation of the "Guess Who" method used years ago by investigators. This instrument, a pupil questionnaire, is called "Casting Characters for Class Plays." Each pupil in the class is asked to write the name of the classmate who is best suited to play a particular part in a class play because he is just that way naturally. Sample items from such a questionnaire are:

1. Someone who is always in good humor; who laughs or smiles a good deal; who makes others happy
2. Someone who is shy about meeting people, who prefers to work alone rather than with others
3. Someone who is snobbish and conceited, who feels superior to others in the class.

Similar items involve choices of pupils for roles described as cooperative, leader, dependable, friendly, and outstanding. Other items may ask for choices for roles described as poor loser, bookworm, and show-off. The teacher should guard against dangers of forcing children to judge others in this method in order to magnify weaknesses. The positive characteristics of leadership, good humor, friendliness, and others should balance negative characteristics of solitary activity, poor loser, or show-off.

From the variety of methods that have been suggested, the teacher and supervisor may use those best adapted to measure the objectives of the local social studies curriculum. In the modern elementary school the evaluation program should be comprehensive. The intangible as well as the tangible objectives should be assessed.

APPROPRIATE USE OF VARIOUS EVALUATION TECHNIQUES

Objective Tests

The objective type of short answer test serves useful purposes in the social studies program. These tests may include completion, true-false, multiple choice, and matching items. They are widely used for measuring pupil achievement of information and concepts in the social studies. Such tests are generally superior to essay examinations in their sampling of course content, reliability of scoring, and ease of scoring. The limitations of short answer tests include difficulty of construction, failure to eliminate guessing, and larger cost of administration. These tests serve administrative uses by the principal or supervisor in conferences with teachers, parents, or the public. The results are also useful in organizing classes within the school and the placement of pupils within the classes. The teacher and supervisor use these test results to judge pupil progress, to apply remedial measures, and to provide for individual differences. These tests are useful for educational guidance and identification of pupils, especially for those who are gifted and those who are less able.

Essay Examinations

Essay examinations are utilized less by the elementary school classroom teacher than the secondary school teacher. Where pupils are sufficiently mature, however, these tests have value in measuring the higher mental processes, such as organizing information and expressing ideas on social studies topics. The limitations of the essay examination deal largely with reader unreliability, lack of objectivity, inadequacy of sampling of content, and stress upon recall of specific information. The essay examination, however, when properly used to supplement other methods of gathering evidence, may serve important instructional uses as well as guidance uses for the more mature elementary school pupil. Essay items are used along with objective items by many teachers.

For the more mature elementary school pupils, the essay examinations are of most value in identifying the pupils who can formulate questions on a topic and who can organize and express their ideas to answer the questions. A pupil, for example, who can list the questions on housing in a large city, who can organize the information and data on housing in a large city, and who can prepare a written report that is adequate for his age and his grade should receive an excellent rating. Less adequate reports or essay examinations would receive appropriate ratings.

Oral Examinations

The oral examination is widely used by the classroom teacher, particularly as an informal device for evaluating pupil knowledge and performance. Although the oral quiz used alone, is a poor basis for rating pupils, it has value as a diagnostic tool. Perhaps the best use of this type of examination is to obtain a quick diagnostic picture of a pupil's knowledge or performance.

A pupil may be attempting to intrepret a map. In an oral examination, or in discussion, the teacher may discover that the pupil does not know the directions of North, South, East and West. The pupil does now know how to use the scale of miles to estimate distance. The pupil does not know how to draw inferences about the crops, rainfall, or climate of the area. By oral questions, the teacher may discover by these types of questions the diagnostic and remedial measures that should be taken to improve pupil achievement.

Observation and Anecdotal Record

Direct observation and recording of behavior is the basis for collecting data by means of observational techniques and anecdotal records. The types of social situations in which observations are most appropriate are discussion groups, committee activities, or the relationships of one pupil with another in the school or classroom situation. Some of the observations may be recorded on a checklist, whereas others may be informal or result in a written notation only. Observation is an important tool not only for assessing skills such as locating information in reference books, but also in observing attitudes and behavior of pupils.

Anecdotal records are a series of notes on exactly what a child did or said in a specific situation. Objectives for which cumulative anecdotal records are most valuable include social adjustment and growth, personal and emotional adjustment, and related factors.

Questionnaires, Interviews and Inventories

Questionnaires, inventories, and interviews are similar techniques for gathering data by securing answers to questions. On the questionnaire the pupil writes answers to a limited number of questions. The questions may refer to matters of fact or matters of opinion and attitude. On the inventory, one may write or encircle short responses to a rather complete set of questions. In the interview one communicates verbally and directly, face to face, with the questioner or teacher. Questionnaires and inventories are similar in that they constitute paper and pencil approaches embodying similar types of questions and serving similar general purposes.

The interview has greater flexibility and lends itself to dealing with confidential and personal information which it is difficult to obtain through the questionnaire. These several appraisal techniques have direct instructional and guidance uses for the teacher and the supervisor. In addition, they lend themselves especially to diagnostic purposes. The interview is particularly valuable in the flexibility which it permits the teacher to exercise in discovering the difficulties that a pupil may be having with subject matter or in obtaining a more diagnostic picture of his attitudes and beliefs.

Checklists and Rating Scales

Checklists and rating scales are similar types of evaluative devices. The former is a list of words, phrases, or sentences for which an observer records a check mark to denote the presence or absence of what is being observed. The rating scale is a list of characteristics set down on a continuum upon which a rater indicates his judgment of the degree of the quality or quantity for each characteristic. As applied to the social studies, these checklists and rating scales would seem to be most appropriate in assessing conduct and behavior or the performance of certain tasks or operations, such as using facilities of a school or classroom library. Although some standardized rating scales and checklists are available, many teachers may wish to construct their own instruments so that they will be fitted to their own classroom situations and methods of instruction.[3]

Personal Reports and Projective Techniques

The number and variety of personal reports and projective techniques for evaluating personalities is so large that a complete inventory of them would require much space and discussion. Personal reports include self-descriptive inventories and problem checklists with standardized questions or statements, as well as an autobiography written by the pupil. Self-descriptive inventories and problem checklists purport to evaluate such specific aspects of personality as self-sufficiency, social adaptablilty, and anxiety about health, home, and school problems.

Projective techniques use relatively unstructured stimulus situations as ink blots, pictures or drawings, incomplete sentences, and toys or puppets. The individual responds freely to these unstructured stimuli. The interpretation of the responses requires long and special training on the part of a person interpreting projective technique protocols, or responses. For this reason they are used by specialists such as psychologists rather than classroom teachers or supervisors. Their main purpose or use is in diagnosing serious personality defects and in providing personal and psychological guidance to such individuals.

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[3] For a variety of examples, see: Michaelis, John U. *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*. Second edition. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956. 523 p.

Sociometric Methods

Sociometric methods are a means of determining the relationships existing among members of a group at a given time. Several methods have been found useful in determining such relationships. One method is to ask an individual to name a limited number of people from within the group with whom he would wish to be closely associated. Another method is to ask the individual to rate all other members of his group on the basis of a predetermined scale. The third method is to ask the individual to select those members of his group who show defined characteristics.

Sociometric techniques have been found useful in promoting the social adjustment of pupils, in promoting the common interests and skills of the group, in grouping pupils for various class activities, in measuring growth in group status, and in detecting social cleavages among group members. Instructional and guidance uses for this technique, as applied to the social studies, would be in organizing groups within the class for special purposes such as trips and committees. Another use is for identifying "isolates," "cliques," and popular "stars" as they may contribute to the climate of the classroom.

It must be pointed out, however, that these sociometric devices have limitations as well as strengths. The teacher must use them with caution and always supplement them with other observations and knowledge about the children. The teacher must be careful not to violate the confidence of his pupils who supply this very personal type of information. Do not use this information to manipulate children, except for their own best self-development.

Self-Rating

Although some of the evaluation techniques discussed involve self-rating such as personal reports and problem checklists in questionnaires and inventories, there may be other opportunities in the social studies classroom for self-rating, both by individuals and the group. When a group or class engages in self-rating, it should be conducted with extreme caution and care on the part of the teacher. The integrity and confidence of both the individual and the group must be safeguarded at all times. This technique may be used in an individual application along with the interview technique when a teacher is dealing with an individual pupil. It may be used on a group basis for attempting to determine how successful or unsuccessful a particular class project or class undertaking has been. The self-rating has dangers as well as assets. Use this method with caution and judgment.

QUALITIES OF EFFECTIVE EVALUATION IN SOCIAL STUDIES

The following statements provide a summary definition of those qualities by which an effective program of evaluation in the social studies may be judged.

1. Evaluation is comprehensive. All major objectives of the social studies are evaluated by a variety of appraisal methods, including standardized tests and scales as well as informal teacher-made tests, observations, questionnaires, anecdotal records, and sociometric techniques.
2. Evaluation is a continuous process. A teacher with a clear concept of social studies objectives evaluates throughout every day the actions and interactions taking place before her.
3. Evaluation is cooperative. At regular and frequent intervals, there should be teacher-pupil appraisal of progress in achieving objectives.
4. Evaluation necessitates, on the part of the teacher, alertness and close observation of children in all types of situations in and out of the classroom.
5. Evaluation requires that the teacher interpret appraisal data in terms of the background, the level of maturity, and the personality of each child, as he attempts to guide his growth and development. Each teacher should recognize the inherent weaknesses in every device used to gather evidence about a pupil. He must use as many sources as possible, give the benefit of doubt to the child, and use the evidence gathered as a means to help the child. The teacher will seek to achieve for each child his maximum development as a well-adjusted and democratic personality and as an informed citizen who thinks critically and who is motivated by desirable civic interests and attitudes.

Contributors' Who's Who

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Hoffman, Howardine G., is Director of the Division of Elementary Education, Office of the Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools, California. She has also served as visiting instructor in several colleges and universities. She was a member of the California State Central Committee on Social Studies during its five years of study. She has served as a consultant to many school districts and educational organizations concerned with evaluation and development of the social studies curriculum.

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